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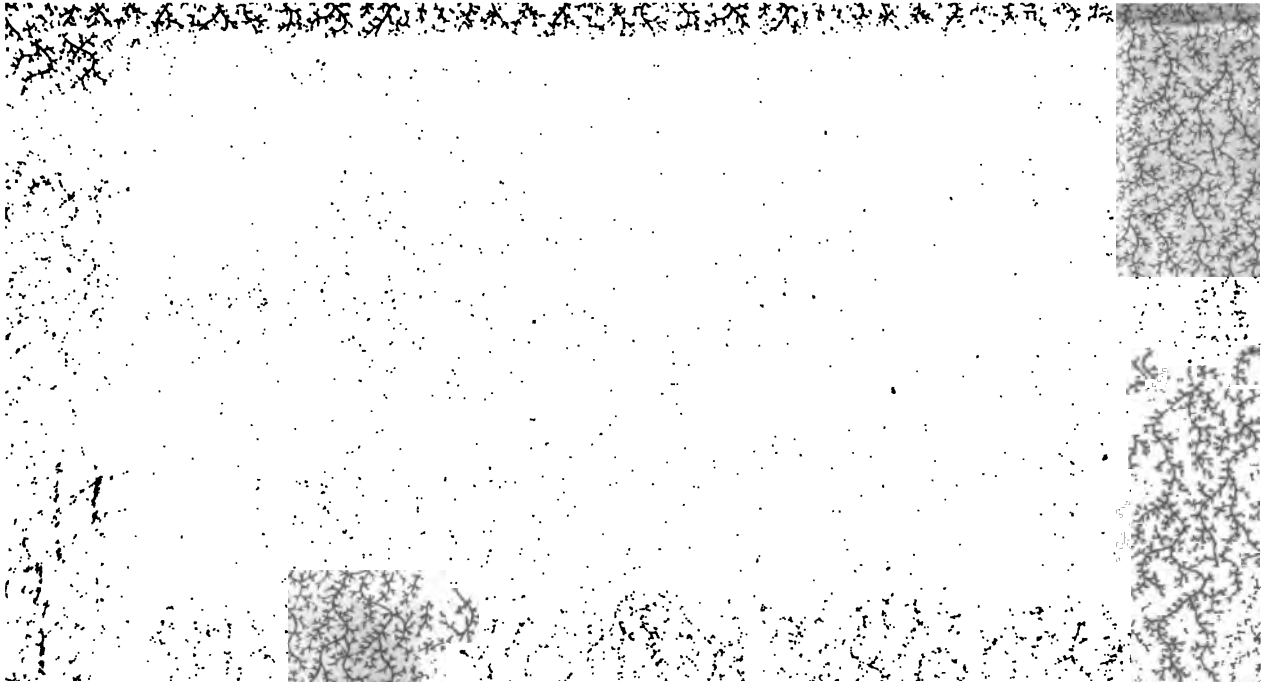

ATIONAL EDUCATION;

ITS PRESENT STATE AND PROSPECTS.

BY

FREDERIC HILL.

IN TWO VOLUMES.

VOL. II.

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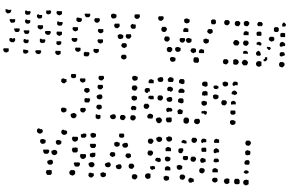

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ПЛЕВУБА
ЬЛВГТС
МЕЛ АОЫК

NATIONAL EDUCATION.

PRESENT STATE OF EDUCATION IN AMERICA.

NEXT to the question, "What is the state of education in our own islands?" perhaps the most interesting inquiry to an Englishman is, "What is its state in America?"

In considering this question, we should try practically to bear in mind the vast extent of the country; and to reflect how much one part differs from another in climate, population and even political institutions. Vast magnitudes shrink to a point as they enter the mind's eye. We talk familiarly of thousands of miles and of millions of acres, while our imagination is really unable to cope with hundreds of miles and thousands of acres. Hearing that a person is gone to America, raises much the same impression in the mind as the announcement that he is gone to Madeira, or any other spot of land. So, again, if two native Americans meet in an English party, we immediately entertain a vague kind of expectation that they will be found to know each other; forgetting that one of them may come from Boston and the other from New Orleans, a distance five times as great as that from London to Dublin.

It is only by forcing the mind to dwell on the extent of separation we have pointed out, and the endless

diversity of local circumstances which exists, that we can guard our imagination against assuming uniformity in the condition and degree of civilization among the people of different parts of a distant country.

In point of fact, the several states of America do differ essentially in all the characteristics of civilization, education, wealth, and morals;—nay, different parts of the same state afford strong contrasts. And this is what may reasonably be expected: indeed, it would be extraordinary if such were not the case. In our own country, which does not greatly exceed in size a single state in America, but in which the roads and other means of communication are better beyond comparison, a wide difference is apparent in the condition of the inhabitants of different districts. There was no danger of Northumberland, with its educated, thriving and contented peasantry, being scared by fires like those which disgraced Cambridgeshire, Sussex, and Kent, with their ignorant, turbulent and poverty-stricken population. The inhabitants of Birmingham felt secure in their persons and property, while the people of Bristol were at the mercy of a lawless mob.

In treating, then, of America, we must be very cautious against forming general conclusions from facts relating to particular towns or particular districts; and still more cautious when the facts regard only individuals in those towns or districts. Much that Mrs. Trollope says may be true without exaggeration; and yet there may be some millions of people in America who would compare advantageously in education, comfort, and morality,—in a word, in happiness, with those of Great Britain. On the other hand, Mr. Stuart's state-

ments of what came under his own eye may be written with the strongest desire to record the simple truth, and yet even the free states may contain less virtual happiness than is to be found in this country. For the questions still remain, first,—"Have the facts been collected by a person at once free from prejudice, and endowed with the rare talent of sifting and collecting evidence?"—and next, "If the facts have been fairly selected, are they sufficient in number and importance to serve as the material for a general conclusion?"

We think certainly, (from the facts we have been able to collect from other quarters,) that an opinion drawn from the matter contained in Mr. Stuart's interesting work would be too favourable towards America; while, on the other hand, the general tenor of Mrs. Trollope's singular book is much farther from the truth in the opposite direction. The strong terms of censure in which Mr. Stuart speaks of the existence of slavery in America, and the sympathy for oppressed manhood which runs through his recital of the treatment to which the slaves are exposed, show that though he may be strongly impressed in favour of the Americans, and anxious to find matter to support his views, he is not the mere partisan who would cautiously shut his eyes when aught unwelcome presents itself.

Of the work generally, however, we believe that the Americans themselves, though by no means disposed to underrate their own merits, (as, indeed, what people are?) allow that the picture in this instance is much too brightly coloured. Between these two extremes we as yet look in vain for the golden

mean. Captain Basil Hall's very clever work cannot be perused with common care, without forcing upon the reader's mind the conviction that its estimable author commenced his American tour with his opinions on most important points irrevocably fixed; and there can be no doubt that their effect was most seriously to modify his inferences and his selection of facts;—nay, there is too much reason to fear that, to a vision thus affected, facts themselves would appear in a distorted form.

It would be productive of the greatest advantages to both countries, if from their respective denizens there could be formed deputations composed of men deservedly enjoying a reputation for a love of justice, and possessing in a high degree the power of collecting facts and of weighing evidence, whose business it should be to visit each other's land, and to make a full and luminous report of the result of their examination. Few things perhaps would tend more to remove national prejudice, and to unite the two countries in the bonds of friendship: for a sense of injustice is most alienating in its effects; and at present there can be no doubt that neither country is fully aware of the many virtues and great amount of good feeling that are to be found in its sister land. If the two countries had but a true insight into each other's character, and gave free vent to that feeling of affection which, though long kept in abeyance, has never been destroyed, the desire for the removal of all obstacles to the most cordial connexion, and to a full, free and constant intercourse, would become irresistible.

In thus expressing a wish, which we believe exists very generally, that the most intimate alliance may be

established between this country and America, we do not of course include the *slave* states;—from their proffered embrace England would recoil.

Our general conclusions on the state of education in America are as follows:—We consider the bulk of the people in the six New England states, and in the state of New York, as being much before the mass of the English people in education; though at the same time we believe that a large portion of the middle and upper classes of England are more highly educated than any corresponding class in America. In a word, the extremes are not nearly so far asunder there as here; and as, unhappily, the lower classes are by far the most numerous, our average or mean condition as respects education is, we fully believe, lower than that of the inhabitants of New England or New York.

As most of the other states, with the exception of Pennsylvania, Ohio, and a few others, are under the depressing and demoralizing influence of slavery, in them education is, as may be expected, in a very low condition; incomparably lower than in New England or New York, or than in our own country. In most of the slave states, not only is there no public provision for the education of the children of slaves, but their education, by law, is forbidden under severe penalties; and every attempt at enlightening the adult slaves which may be considered as calculated to produce, or as *tending* to produce, the consequences which must and happily *will* result from a spread of but a little portion of knowledge among them, is in some of the states *a capital offence*. Mr. Stuart quotes several clauses from two acts of the legislature of Louisiana, which had passed a few days before he reached New

Orleans (in March 1830), which would rival the decrees of the Spanish Inquisition in the darkest times of its tyranny; and which, coming from the representative body of a people who have the hardihood to call their state a *free* country, are as disgusting as they are atrocious. We give two of the clauses referred to:—

"1st. That all persons who shall teach, or permit or cause to be taught, any slave in this state to read or write, shall be imprisoned not less than one, nor more than twelve, months."

"2nd. That whosoever shall use language in any public discourse, from the bar, the bench, the stage, the pulpit, or in any place, or in private discourse or conversation, or shall make use of signs or actions *having a tendency* to produce discontent among the free coloured population in this state, or to excite insubordination among the slaves therein; or whosoever shall knowingly be instrumental in bringing into this state any paper, pamphlet, or book having such tendency as aforesaid,—shall, at the discretion of the court, suffer at hard labour not less than three years, nor more than twenty years, or *death*."

Stuart's Travels, vol. ii. p. 242.

In many states it is illegal to educate even the free children of colour—if children under such an accursed ban can be properly called *free*. This is the law in Virginia, North and South Carolina, Louisiana, and several other slave states; indeed, we are doubtful whether there is a single exception to the rule. In Virginia, it appears by the last census (1830), that there are nearly half a million of slaves out of a population of little more than 1,200,000; that is to say, that more than one person in three in Virginia is a slave, and as

such completely shut out from the benefits of education. How many more are excluded on account of their skin not being of the orthodox, aristocratic hue, (notwithstanding they are what is termed *free*,) we cannot say. It is clear, however, that supposing the whole of the remaining population to receive education, the inhabitants of Virginia, taken as a body, would still rank low in education. But the education even of the whites appears to be neglected; indeed, there can be no doubt that ignorance in the general body of the white population, as well as that of the blacks, is an essential condition of the continuance of slavery. By the Report published at Philadelphia two years ago (1833) by the American Sunday School Union, it appears that, while in the north-eastern states the portion of children attending Sunday schools varies from one-half to two-thirds of the whole juvenile population, not more than one *white* child in *seven* goes to a Sunday school in Virginia and the other southern slave states. How far this statement may be correct we do not know; but the directors of the Sunday School Union evinced their belief in the want of education in the southern states by determining, at great expense to make a vigorous effort to establish schools in them.

Mr. Crawford's very able Report on American Penitentiaries, lately published by order of the House of Commons, contains in the Appendix an important and interesting paper on the common schools of America; and this is confirmatory of the neglected state of education in Virginia and the other slave states, even among the white population. Mr. Crawford is of opinion that, taking into account the coloured popula-

tion, not more than *one child in five* in these states has an opportunity of attending school. The following are extracts from his Reports on particular states:—

Kentucky.—"In the returns made by the deputy marshals of each county to the marshal of the state, in connexion with the census of 1830, it was stated that in that year, out of the whole number of (white) children between five and fifteen (144,000), as many as 103,000, or upwards of five-sevenths, attended no school."

South Carolina.—"About 8,000 or 9,000 [white] children [out of more than 71,000] are stated to receive education.* By the census of 1830, the number of coloured children under ten years was about 106,000; namely, 103,000 slaves, and 2,700 born of free parents. These children are entirely destitute of education; the law excluding them from participating in the benefits of instruction."

Florida.—"In 1831, an Education Society was formed in Florida. One of its Reports contains some interesting accounts of the state of education in this territory. In the counties of St. John and Mosquito there were 579 white children of both sexes under fifteen years of age, 238 of whom were under five. The number of children in St. Augustin, (the only place where a school is to be found,) was 463; and of these, 137 children of both sexes attended school daily. Of nine schools there were three containing 57 children, conducted by teachers qualified to impart elementary instruction in the respective branches of education.

* We give the nearest round numbers, instead of quoting the precise numbers.

Thus, out of a number of 341 children between the ages of five and fifteen, there are but 57 who are likely to obtain elementary education; 80 receive but precarious instruction, and 204 are left to grow up in entire ignorance."

"The Congress of the United States had set apart for the establishment of common schools a large tract of land, valued at 10,000 dollars; but it seems that these lands have been lost to the schools by certain prior claims arising out of former grants!"

Georgia.—"Much had at one time been effected in ameliorating the condition of the Indians in this state by the exertions of the missionaries. The moral and religious condition of this interesting people had become materially improved, and their manners civilized. Spirit-drinking was greatly on the decrease, and an anxiety highly creditable to their parental feelings was evinced for the education of their children. But the labours of the missionaries were arrested: a law was passed for the purpose of prohibiting them from imparting religious instruction to the Indians; and a few clergymen who were engaged in this benevolent work, and who disregarded the injunction, were for this offence committed to the Penitentiary. It is difficult to conceive any treatment more deeply fraught with cruelty and oppression than that to which the Indians have been subjected."—*Appendix to Mr. Crawford's Report on the American Penitentiaries*, p. 219.

The "American Annals of Education," a work which appears to be conducted with great fairness, candour and moderation, and with equal talent and benevolence, presents striking pictures of the uneducated

condition of the inhabitants of the southern states. The following is an extract from the number for December 1833:—

"Our present number, as the last of the volume, and possibly of the work,* is filled with an unusual amount of general articles, which could not be passed by. It furnishes sad evidence of the truth of the accounts we have given concerning the state of our country in reference to education. From North Carolina, Georgia, Virginia, and the West, we find but one voice,—*multitudes have no instruction, teachers are unqualified,* and schools are wretched to a lamentable degree where they are found."—Page 593.

But enough of these scenes of slavery and ignorance; let us seek brighter views elsewhere.

There is great difficulty in collecting evidence on which it is safe to form exact conclusions respecting the state of education in any part of America, owing to the want of a general organized system for collecting statistical information. Statistics in America appear, indeed, to be in almost as neglected a state as in England; which, unfortunately, is saying a good deal. While this is the case, but little reliance can be placed in the statements of travellers and others as to the number of children going to school in a particular state, or the kind of education given. Thus Mr. Stuart gives an estimate, made by a gentleman at New York, who, he says, is familiar with the subject, by which it would appear that one person in

* We are happy to say that the anticipated termination of the work did not take place; and that, although insufficiently supported, the publication still continues. The neglect of the "American Annals of Education" argues ill for the public taste of the country.

three in that state is at school! A statement somewhat staggering, when we reflect that (making exception for the numbers that might be made up by older children) this would require that every child, the moment it was ushered into the world, should go straightway to the school-room, and thenceforward keep up a constant attendance until he had completed his fifteenth year!

In opposition to this statement, we may mention another, which is given as the result of a recent examination made by the Superintendent of Education in New York. According to his report, there are in the city of New York alone not less than 19,000 *children growing up without any education whatever!* Now the population of the city is about 230,000; and if we take the number of children between the ages of five and fifteen at one-fifth part of the whole population (which we believe to be somewhat beyond the true point), we have about 46,000 children.—19,000 out of 46,000 to be growing up without education, would indicate a sad state of things indeed: but we hope and believe that this statement is as erroneous in one direction as Mr. Stuart's is in the other. Nor must we suppose, in order to explain the discrepancy between the two accounts, that the defects of the capital are atoned for by superlative excellence in the rural districts. So far from this being the case, we are informed on what we consider very good authority, and the statement is supported by general analogy, that, with all its defects, the capital has decidedly the advantage.

While so much doubt hangs over the accuracy of statistical returns, we must look out more sedulously

for evidence of an indirect kind. Such, for instance, as whether travellers often meet with persons unable to read or write? — what is the demand for cheap literature?—what is the public feeling on the subject of education? &c. &c.

As respects the states of New England and New York, all these general tokens are in favour of the supposition that education is widely spread. This education, however, appears to be of a very meagre kind; about equal to that given in the Lancasterian schools of this country.

A friend of ours who resided about two years in New York assures us that he very seldom met with a person, even in the lowest ranks of life, who could not read and write; and that the demand for cheap literature, not newspapers only, but little works corresponding with the Penny Magazine, Chambers' Edinburgh Journal, &c. as also larger periodical miscellanies of literature, is very great indeed. Mr. Crawford, well known for the interest he takes in the subject of education, and who, in his late official visit to America for the purpose of inspecting the prisons and penitentiaries, has had many opportunities of collecting information respecting the state of education, confirms the foregoing observations; and extends the remark to the states of New England; where indeed education appears to be at a higher pitch than in New York; though the latter will not long be behindhand if it continue to advance as rapidly as at present.

Mr. Vigne, in his "Six Months in America," says:—

"The education of the poorer classes is very much attended to, except perhaps in the more western states, where the inhabitants think they can get on just as

well without it. In the Atlantic states, there is not one person in five hundred (I am speaking of native Americans) that cannot read and write: the mail would often stop opposite a solitary log-house in the midst of the thickest forest, and throw down a newspaper, which would be immediately picked up and spelled over with the greatest avidity.

"Most of the backwoodsmen can talk with all reasonable correctness of the state of Europe generally; but the Reform Bill in England and the Liverpool Railway were always amongst the most prominent subjects of inquiry."—Vol. ii. p. 70.

Mr. Hodgson, in his very interesting work entitled "Letters from America," published in 1824, when speaking of New England, says:—

"I first entered New England in the state of Vermont, which I crossed in the autumn, and with which I was much delighted; and the favourable impressions I received have been confirmed by more extended observation. It has been particularly gratifying to me to perceive that all that is most interesting and valuable in New England, is derived, not from any peculiar natural advantages, for in these she is far surpassed by almost all the rest of the United States, but from those blessings of education, which will soon, I trust, pervade the whole globe. Indeed, the number of schools which we observed as we passed along the roads in New England, and the neat appearance and respectable civil manners of the children going or returning with their little books under their arms, were very pleasing."—Vol. ii. p.301.

Captain Basil Hall's testimony in favour of the general spread of education in America is very import-

ant: it has all the weight of favourable evidence from an adverse party. In making the following observations, Captain Hall had probably the north-eastern states more especially in view, inasmuch as the observation follows many remarks on the state of education at Boston, at which town he was then staying.

"There is in that country [America] a very general wish to teach the elements of knowledge to the rising generation of all classes, so that hardly any one is growing up now-a-days without a competent proficiency in reading and writing. This I grant in the fullest extent for which the admission is claimed by the Americans themselves."—Vol. ii. p. 169.

Captain Hall then goes on to point out that the education given does not fill up the idea which we in England attach to the word *education*, and comments particularly on the neglect of the study of the dead languages. As, however, we are now considering the state of popular education (in which we presume that no one would seriously plead for the introduction of this study), we do not think it necessary to follow Captain Hall in his remarks.

The evidence of Major Hamilton, author of "Men and Manners in America," is, like that of Captain Basil Hall, peculiarly valuable, as coming from one not much inclined to praise. Major Hamilton says:—"Speaking generally, it may be said that every New Englander receives the elements of education. Reading and writing, even among the very poorest class, are universally diffused."—Vol. i. p. 222.

We know, indeed, of no authority by which the statement of the almost universal diffusion of the arts

of reading and writing among the New Englanders and the inhabitants of the state of New York is contradicted. And if the adults are in point of fact found, with but rare exceptions, to possess this knowledge, we do not think it probable that so large a number of children as 19,000 are growing up at New York without any education whatever. Indeed, when we bear in mind, that within the last twenty years public attention has been much more forcibly directed to the subject of education than heretofore, we should say that such a statement *cannot* be true.

We will now inquire what the demand is for newspapers and other cheap literature. The American Almanac, a very valuable and useful publication, corresponding in its general arrangements with the British Almanac and Companion, contains in its number for this year (1835) a great deal of information on the periodical press of America; and from it we glean the following particulars:—From the first establishment of the British colonies in America down to the present time, the states of New England have taken the lead in the circulation of every kind of knowledge by means of the printing-press; and of the New England states, Massachusetts has been foremost. It is not yet 200 years since the first printing-press was introduced into America: this press had been sent to Cambridge, Massachusetts, by Mr. Glover, an English dissenting minister. This was in the year 1639; and 65 years afterwards,—that is, in the year 1704,—the first newspaper in America was commenced at Boston. At the time of the beginning of the American revolution in 1775, the number of newspapers in New England was 14, and in the remaining part of the country 23.

Since that period, the increase in this branch of literature has been most extraordinary; while, also, a great number of magazines, reviews, and other periodical publications have been established; though not a single successful attempt of the kind had been made before the time in question. By the year 1810, the number of newspapers in New England had increased to 76, and in the whole of the United States to 359. Seven years ago (1828), there were 192 newspapers and other periodical publications published in New England, and the number in the country at large was 851; and last year (1834), the numbers were 259 in the New England States, and 1,265 in the States generally. No fewer than 90 are daily papers; and of these 21 are published in New England. It appears, then, that more than one-fifth part of this vast issue of newspapers is in New England: and, indeed, the share of the New Englanders is even greater than this; for the circulation of many of their papers is much greater than the average circulation, owing probably in some measure to the population being denser in New England than in any other part of America. Taking this circumstance and the larger number of daily papers in New England into consideration, it is probable that not less than a fourth part of the total circulation is in the New England States; the fractional part of the population being not more than between a sixth and a seventh part,—namely (in 1830), somewhat less than 2,000,000 out of nearly 13,000,000.

Of the 21 daily newspapers published in New England, no fewer than 13 belong to the single state of

Massachusetts; and of these, 9 are published in the town of Boston, in addition to 26 weekly and 7 half-weekly papers! the population of Boston being between 60,000 and 70,000 only.

The number of newspapers in the state of New York is about equal to the number in the states of New England, taken together; and the population is about the same; each containing, at the census of 1830, about 2,000,000 of inhabitants. Taking the extent of circulation however into account, as well as the number of separate newspapers, it is believed that the newspaper press of New England is most prolific.

Let us now inquire what the demand for newspapers is in the slave states, compared with what it is in the free states. The population of the slave states, we are sorry to say, is nearly one-half of the whole population of the Union,—that is, about 6,000,000;* which is once and a half the combined population of the states of New England and New York. In New England and New York together, however, there are 42 daily papers; while in the whole of the slave states there are only 30 daily papers. Again, in New England and New York the total number of newspapers and other periodical publications is 526; while in the sixteen slave states, with their 6,000,000 of population, the corresponding number is only 198!

We are fully aware that the cheapness of the American newspapers (the price averages about three halfpence each) is essential to this great circulation. This circumstance, however, does not vitiate our argu-

* We do not include New Jersey and Delaware, as these two latter are rapidly freeing themselves from the stigma of slavery.

ment; inasmuch as mere cheapness, without the general diffusion of the power of reading, cannot produce an extensive demand.

Of the existence of a general desire for the diffusion of education we find abundant proof; first, in the fact that large funds are, as we shall presently see, set apart by the state for the purposes of education; and, in addition to this, the people in the separate towns in the states of New England, New York, and some others, voluntarily tax themselves to raise additional funds for the same purpose. Indeed, we believe it is very generally felt and admitted in America, that the safety of the state lies in the education of the people: always excepting the slaves and people of colour; whose every step towards the acquirement of knowledge is viewed with fear and jealousy.

The following is extracted from the evidence of Mr. Kempson before the central board of Factory Commissioners. Mr. Kempson is a cotton-manufacturer of Philadelphia.

"Have you any national system of education?—We have public schools, supported partly by state funds and partly by private bequests. All children have the privilege of attending."

"Do they, in point of fact, very generally attend in the manufacturing districts?—They universally attend; and I think that information is more generally diffused through the villages and the whole community of the New England States than amongst any other community of which I have any knowledge."

"What is the general view taken of these schools by manufacturers and persons of wealth in America?—From their experience, they deem them of the greatest

importance to the welfare of the state. They are encouraged by the state governments, and all the leading persons of the state."

"How do the children whom you employ obtain education?—The manufacturers are always anxious that the children should absent themselves from the manufactory during two or three months in the year to attend the schools. The manufacturers very frequently suggest to the parents the necessity of sending their children to school. The sending the child to school is generally an inconvenience to the manufacturer."

"Is the inconvenience of the children going to school such as to increase the cost of production?—I do not think it does increase the cost of production. The only inconvenience is the trouble of getting other hands. We think the advantage of their being educated more than counterbalances that trouble."

Factory Commissioners' 1st Report, E. pp. 21 & 22.

In this country there certainly exists an apprehension on the part of many in the upper, and even in the middle classes, lest the working and poorer classes should, by acquiring much knowledge, become dangerous members of the state. In America the converse of this feeling is said to exist: the poorer classes are there jealous of their richer neighbours becoming *dangerous members of the state* by over-learning.

We believe either fear to be groundless,—nay, to be a feeling the very reverse of what reason and experience would dictate. We are at a loss, however, to determine which of the two grounds of alarm is the more fanciful.

Many in the lower ranks of American citizens argue in this way:—"Knowledge," they say, "is proclaimed to be power. By the constitution of America, all men are to have equal power: but this cannot be unless they are equal in knowledge; therefore the rich should not be allowed to acquire more knowledge than the poor." On this principle, a man who bids fair to surpass his neighbour in stature and muscular strength ought immediately to be clapped into an iron case, that Nature may be punished for violating the laws of equality and "the constitution of America!"

We doubt not that most of those who desire to keep down talent and knowledge to one common level are aware how hopeless is the attainment of their object; and when they themselves have made a little more progress in knowledge, they will see that such a plan would be as mischievous in its effects as it is impossible of execution. All that the framers of the American constitution could possibly desire was to withhold artificial advantages—to let Nature have a free course, and not dam up her streams. To attempt a system of forced equality, is to aim at what is impossible, and what, were it possible, would be mischievous. A sober man, other things equal, has more power than a drunkard: but because we cannot make the latter give up his dram, shall we attempt to force spirituous liquors down the throat of the former, to prevent his getting more political power than his neighbour? The principle leads into endless absurdities.

Again, only let a fair account be opened with high attainments and superior knowledge, and how great is the balance of public advantage! What evils, for ex-

ample, have the Americans suffered from men of superior knowledge, compared with the good they have derived from their Franklin, their Washington, their Fulton? And in this country, whose loss have we had most to mourn, and who have left behind them the greatest monuments of good, but men of surpassing talent and great stores of knowledge? Let us look back for a moment over the last twenty years, and recall the names of Watt, of Davy, of Scott, and of Bentham; and we will ask what bad men eminent for their talent and knowledge can be pointed out whose evil deeds do aught to outweigh the mighty boons conferred by these benefactors of the human race? Knowledge, in truth, unlike every other kind of power, tends by its very growth to prevent its own abuse; for, with every addition, it makes its possessor more clearly perceive, that if he would ensure his own happiness, he must labour for the happiness of others. "Do everything then," we should say, "towards raising the people generally in the scale of knowledge; throw open to them the national institutions of learning, and create others suited to the development of every kind of talent; — but check not the progress of any man; on the contrary, rejoice at his rapid career."

To return from this digression. We think that the evidence adduced necessarily leads to the conclusion that the power of reading at least is very general in the north-eastern states of America; and that this power is not confined, as is often the case elsewhere, to the means of stammering through a few easy sentences, but that the people can read fluently and with pleasure to themselves.

Assuming that the power of reading is very gene-

rally possessed, we think it safe to conclude, even if there were not any direct evidence in support of such conclusion, that other branches of elementary education, as writing and arithmetic, are a good deal attended to. Indeed, as regards writing, three of our authorities, including Captain Basil Hall, bear witness to the general possession of the power. But there is not, so far as we are aware, any general test like that of the demand for cheap literature in the case of reading, which we can apply, to determine how far the art of writing has been diffused: the same must be said of arithmetic. And (to the best of our knowledge) popular school education extends no farther than these three elementary subjects. We should perhaps except geography, which appears to be a favourite study with the American youth, and which, so far as relates to America itself, appears to be commonly taught in the New England schools.

We are fully aware how meagre is the education we have described,—how scanty it is compared with what is desirable; and we grieve to think that an education which is positively so very deficient, should, by comparison, rank so very high. In regretting, however, that more is not done, let us give due weight to the good that is in fact accomplished. In our chapter on Sunday schools, we have endeavoured to show that great and important advantages are obtained by the diffusion merely of the art of reading; and there can, as we have seen, be no reason for doubting that the bulk of the people in the north-eastern states of America have at least acquired this power: and in America the superiority which a knowledge of the art of reading confers, is yet greater than in England;

for wages being higher there than here, the labouring man is better able, after supplying his animal wants, to set apart a portion of his earnings for the purchase of mental food; while, at the same time, one of the most attractive kinds of literature, viz. that which treats of passing events, is very much cheaper there than it is in this country.

If these statements and the inferences drawn from them be correct, it appears, 1stly, That the white population of the north-eastern states of America possess very generally the power of reading with fluency; and 2ndly, That the possession of this important key to knowledge tends, under the peculiar circumstances we have pointed out, to raise them even above the few nations that excel them in the amount of direct instruction.

PUBLIC PROVISION FOR EDUCATION IN AMERICA.

Our readers are aware that in America education is, in a certain degree, under the guardianship of the government. The extent, however, of the public provision for education varies very much in the different states; depending, as it does, partly on the federal government, partly on the government of the particular state, and partly on the municipal government of the particular town. It rests principally, however, with the two latter: the federal government interfering no farther than to direct that in every new settlement a certain portion of land shall be reserved for the purposes of education.*

With but few exceptions, each state has appropriated certain funds, arising principally from the sale of

* See the Encyclopedia Americana;—article "Schools."

lands, (sometimes from the state bank also,) for the support of education. In some instances, this fund is augmented by a property tax of one-tenth per cent. (two shillings in every hundred pounds) on all the inhabitants of the state.

The produce of these funds is very different in different states. In Connecticut, which has the largest state fund for education (in proportion to the amount of population), the annual produce is rather more than one dollar for each child between the ages of five and fifteen; the annual income from the school-fund being 70,000 dollars, and the number of children between the ages of five and fifteen being rather more than 69,000.*

In Virginia, with a total population four times as great as that of Connecticut, and with a *white* population more than twice as great, the state fund appropriated to purposes of education does not at present exceed 45,000 dollars annually;† or about a quarter of a dollar (one shilling and three-halfpence) for each *white* child between the age of five and fifteen years.

In several states, that of North Carolina for example, although a school-fund is gradually accumulating, it is at present so small, that the interest is added from year to year to the principal, instead of being applied to purposes of education. We may give it as a general rule, that this education-fund is of trifling amount in the slave states compared with what it is in the free states.

In most instances, the state fund is of recent establishment: in New York, for example, there was no such fund before the year 1816. In Maryland it was

* Crawford's Report, p. 198. † Ibid. p. 218.

established as recently as the year 1825, and in other states it has been introduced yet more recently. The distribution of the public education-fund of each state is generally controlled by officers appointed by the state government, who are sometimes directed, as in the state of New York, to make it a condition of every grant, that a sum, at least equal to the grant, shall be raised by the inhabitants of the town or district in which the money is to be expended.

There appears to be no difficulty in complying with this condition; thus, while the state fund in New York (which consists in part of the proceeds of certain government lands, and in part of money raised by a small property-tax) amounts to about 300,000 dollars, or about 70,000*l.* a year, the different towns and districts voluntarily raise as much as 350,000 dollars, or about 80,000*l.* a year.*

The total sum expended on public education in the state of New York, including the payments by the parents, (the very poor are exempted from these payments,) is, according to the report of the Superintendent of Common Schools, about 1,100,000 dollars (about 250,000*l.*) per annum, or rather more than $2\frac{1}{4}$ dollars (10*s.* $1\frac{1}{2}$*d.*) for each child at school.

In Massachusetts no state education-fund has hitherto existed; but each town and district has been required to make a provision for the education of the rising generation by taxing themselves. And this plan still continues, although we perceive that a law was passed by the legislature of Massachusetts last year (1834), for establishing a public education-fund out of the proceeds of certain lands. This fund, how-

* Companion to the American Almanac for 1834.

ever, is to be applied only in aid of the sums raised by the different towns and districts, as is usual in other states. The former education law, which remains unaltered in every other particular, directs that in every village or district containing fifty families, a school shall be opened, and a master provided able to teach reading, writing, orthography, English grammar, geography, and arithmetic; and that the school shall be kept open at least six months in the year; or if the time be less, then more schools than one must be opened. Thus, if the school season be only three months, there must be two schools; if only two months, three schools. If the town or district contain 100 families, then the school must be open all the year round, or two schools kept open half the year; and so on. If the place contain 150 families, then two schools must be opened; the time at the two together being equal to eighteen months: and every city, town, or district, containing 500 families, must have two such elementary schools open throughout the year, or, as before, a larger number of schools open for a shorter time; and such city, town, or district, must contain, in addition to these elementary schools, a school for a higher grade of instruction, namely, one whose master is able to teach book-keeping, geometry, surveying, algebra, and the history of the United States: and if the town or district contain 4,000 inhabitants, then the master of the higher school must be able to teach the Latin and Greek languages, general history, rhetoric, and logic, in addition to the foregoing.*

Such is the kind of education which the law of Mas-

* Crawford's Report, p. 193.

sachusetts *decrees* shall be provided for the people. How far the provisions of the law are in fact carried into effect we are unable to say with certainty. We believe that as far as regards elementary schools the law is very generally observed; but we fear that the clause requiring that under certain circumstances a superior kind of education shall be provided is very frequently disregarded. There appears, indeed, to be no sufficient provision for carrying any part of the law into operation: there is no general organization, no directing and controlling body responsible for the execution of the law; penalties are indeed appointed to be paid by any town or district neglecting to comply with the provisions of the act, but it does not appear (so far as we are acquainted with the law) that any effective means are taken for ascertaining whether the provisions of the law are, or are not, in fact complied with. In the state of New York, an officer called the Superintendent of Common Schools is appointed by the government, and invested with considerable power; and such is the vigour given to the working of the system of education in New York (apparently by this arrangement), that there is good reason for believing that New York, though not at present so far advanced in popular education as some of the New England states, is making more rapid progress than any other state in the Union.

No such plan, however, has hitherto been adopted in Massachusetts, or, to the best of our belief, in any other state in the country; although we perceive that the evil which it is calculated to remedy is beginning to make a due impression on the public; and in one instance—that of Pennsylvania—the adoption of a

plan similar to this has been recommended by a joint committee of the two houses of the legislature, appointed to report on a system of general education.

Even at Boston, which is probably the best educated town in the United States, many of the schools are (according to a report in the Annals of Education, given as the results of personal examination) in a wretched condition; the school-house being frequently placed in a close unhealthy spot, the school-room small and ill-ventilated, and the apparatus for teaching quite insufficient.

There are very general complaints of the want of good teachers. This evil and its causes are noticed very fully in the report of the Committee of the Pennsylvanian Legislature, and the evil is frequently referred to in the communications from persons in other states which are appended to that report. The remedies pointed out, are the establishment of normal schools, and granting such liberal salaries to teachers as shall make the profession attractive and raise it in general respect. The salaries paid are at present miserably low. Even in Massachusetts the average is not more than 200 dollars a year (45*l.*) for male teachers, and 65 dollars (about 15*l.*) for female teachers;* the stipend paid to the latter being sometimes as little as three-quarters of a dollar (3*s.* 4½*d.*) per week, or less than 9*l.* a year! And this, too, in a country where labour generally is more highly remunerated than in England.

Paltry as is the salary paid to public teachers in Massachusetts, it is probably quite as great there as in any other state; and, indeed, greater than in most other

* Crawford's Report, p. 195.

states. In New York, for instance, the public teacher is yet worse recompensed than he is in Massachusetts. Well may the Committee of the Pennsylvanian Legislature declare that "a shameful parsimony prevails in the remuneration of teachers of common schools!"

However, notwithstanding the low standard of excellence among the teachers, and the general want of a regulating and responsible authority, we are satisfied, as we have before stated, and as we have brought evidence to prove, that elementary instruction is very generally diffused among the children of the New England states and of New York. In farther corroboration of this, so far as Massachusetts is concerned, it may be mentioned, that in reply to one of a series of questions issued by the secretary of state, it is affirmed, that in one-third of the school districts of Massachusetts, (no answers appear to have been received from the others,) there were together only *ten* persons between the age of fourteen and twenty-one who are unable to read and write,—that is to say, only ten out of a population of more than 200,000! Doubtless these reports, seeing that there are no ready means of testing their accuracy, are to be received with caution; still the statement is probably deserving of *some* weight.

We believe it seldom, if ever, happens that other means than persuasion and the influence of public opinion are adopted to induce a parent to send his children to the public school; though we observe that by law the "select men" of every town in Connecticut are authorised to take a child out of the hands of its parents when its education is wholly neglected. This law, however, is probably a dead letter: we never

heard of an instance of its enforcement, or indeed of compulsory education in any form.

Upon the whole, it appears that the plan of placing the education of the people under the care of the state has proved successful in America, and we believe it to be generally popular there. That the present system must be greatly extended and improved before it can be considered very good, there is no doubt: but looking at the enlightened views on education which are gaining ground in America, especially as regards the systematic introduction of manual labour, and the necessity of establishing normal schools, we have little doubt that, whoever treats of this subject a few years hence, will have to record very great improvements.

It is gratifying to see how frequently the professors of the different colleges in America are found to participate in the desire for the advancement of sound principles of education, as manifested by their occasional addresses to the students. An intelligent and thinking people like the Americans, whose minds can be readily addressed by means of the cheap periodical literature which abounds in the country, will not, we feel certain, be long in adopting the opinions which have been promulgated, and in coming to the conclusion that it is just and wise in the state to give a much more extensive education to the rising generation than is at present afforded; and that to accomplish this most effectually there must be a general directing power, with a system of individual responsibility.

Of the various improvements of which the system of education in America, as elsewhere, is susceptible, we doubt whether there is one which we should place higher than the introduction of manual labour into

the routine of education, whether for its immediate effect in giving health and vigour to the body, or for its scarcely less direct operation in strengthening the powers of the mind, and inducing a cheerful temperament and improved moral feelings.

A report has been laid before the House of Representatives for Pennsylvania by a select committee appointed to examine into this important subject; and we are glad to perceive that the report has been followed by an act for establishing a State Manual Labour Academy for the education of teachers. The following is extracted from the report:—*

"The advantages of this system of instruction have long been familiar to the inquiring minds of many philanthropists. The enterprising and benevolent Fellenburg, whose unlimited experience in the subject of education renders him high authority, has satisfactorily proved the value of manual labour academies. His institution at Hofwyl, Switzerland,—a notice of which is appended,—which connects manual with intellectual labour, is a beautiful illustration of the benefits arising from this mode of tuition.

"Similar institutions in the New England states have been no less successful, though on a scale much less extensive. The theological seminary at Andover, Massachusetts, which is fitted up with a workshop, tools, &c. at a cost of about 5,000 dollars, contains

* We should also wish to direct attention to an excellent and very interesting report drawn up by Mr. Weld, and published by the society at New York "for Promoting Manual Labour in Literary Institutions." We heartily wish that a society were formed in this country with the same objects. If such a society should be established, it could not do better than begin its labours by republishing Mr. Weld's report.

150 pupils, who labour three hours daily with manifest advantages. Another institution, in the same place, contains about 60 young men, in indigent circumstances, who, by their labour between the hours of study, are able to pay more than one-half the expense of their instruction. It is mentioned, greatly to the credit of these young gentlemen, that, practising upon the useful lessons of industry acquired in their school, most of them, in the winter season, take charge of primary schools in their vicinity, in which they convey to others that information which they have obtained through their own perseverance and the liberality of their patrons.

"The Oneida Institute of Science and Industry, which has been in existence in the state of New York several years, is now in a flourishing condition, the project having resulted even more satisfactorily than was anticipated. The number of applications for admission annually increases, and the trustees are obliged frequently to turn away pupils anxious to obtain the benefits of the institute.

"The trustees of the Pennsylvania College at Gettysburg have recently made preparations for connecting a workshop with their academy; and similar arrangements, effected some time since by the trustees of the Lafayette College at Easton, have been found decidedly advantageous. Indeed, the committee scarcely entertain a doubt, but that the example will soon be followed by almost every college in the country, where either economy or the health of the pupil is taken into consideration.

"The committee beg leave to sum up, as the result

of their investigations, and as their convictions. the following propositions:—

"First.—That the expense of education, when connected with manual labour judiciously directed, may be reduced at least one half.

"Second.—That the exercise of about three hours' manual labour, daily, contributes to the health and cheerfulness of the pupil, by strengthening and improving his physical powers, and by engaging his mind in useful pursuits.

"Third.—That so far from manual labour being an impediment in the progress of the pupil in intellectual studies, it has been found that in proportion as one pupil has excelled another in the amount of labour performed, the same pupil has excelled the other in equal ratio in his intellectual studies.

"Fourth.—That manual labour institutions tend to break down the distinctions between rich and poor which exist in society, inasmuch as they give an almost equal opportunity of education to the poor by labour, as is afforded to the rich by the possession of wealth. And,

"Fifth.—That pupils trained in this way are much better fitted for active life, and better qualified to act as useful citizens, than when educated in any other mode; that they are better as regards physical energy, and better intellectually and morally.

"In accordance with these views and opinions, the Committee on Education submit a bill providing for the establishment of a manual labour academy, under the immediate control of the state."

A sure token that much is really taught in some at

least of the public schools, is to be found in the fact (which appears to be fully established), that the richer classes avail themselves of the public schools to a considerable extent (especially in country districts) for the education of their own children. The Committee of the Pennsylvanian Legislature, to whose report we have before referred, addressed letters to the governors of several states (principally those of New England), requesting replies to certain queries relative to the working of the different systems of public education. The fifth question is as follows:—"Is the system universal; and if so, do the rich avail themselves of it?" The general tenor of the answers to this question is such as we have described: as the point, however, to which they relate is, in our opinion, very important, we shall transcribe some of the replies at length.

Maine.—"In some of the more wealthy and populous towns private schools are common, but in general the children of all classes—of the rich as well as the poor—attend the public schools established by law."

Connecticut.—"It is universal; and the rich as well as the poor avail themselves of it, except in the cities and large villages, where the schools are so crowded, that those who are able have, at their own expense, established select schools, and left the whole benefit of the school fund to be enjoyed by the poorer classes."

New York.—"The system is universal; and in the interior of the state the children of the rich as well as the poor attend the schools. In the cities and larger villages, those who can afford the expense usually send to private schools."

Ohio.—"The system is universal; the rich and the poor enjoy equal privileges."

We deem it essential to great success, in any system of education intended for the bulk of the people, that the public schools should be rendered attractive also to the middle and wealthy classes. All doubt about the real value of the education given, all feeling of degradation in accepting it, and all suspicion that the school is secretly intended as a means of getting the poorer classes more completely under the power of the rich, (which, one and all, at present act powerfully in deterring the working classes from sending their children to school,) are done away with at once when the rich man is induced to send his own children to partake of the benefits of the instruction offered. We agree most cordially with the Committee of the Pennsylvanian Legislature when, in speaking of the causes of the failure of the legislative provision for education in Pennsylvania, they say—"A radical defect in our laws on the subject of education is, that the public aid now given, and imperfectly given, is confined to the *poor*. Aware of this, your committee have taken care to exclude the word *poor* from the bill which will accompany this report; meaning to make the system general,—that is to say, to form an educational association between the rich, the comparatively rich, and the destitute."

For our own part, much as we admire and gratefully as we acknowledge the zeal, the benevolence, and the wisdom of those who have laboured to establish schools for gratuitous education, we look upon such establishments as furnishing but the foretaste of the good yet to come; we hope to see the day when the term

"charity school" shall have become obsolete, and when public schools shall be provided to which a man will have no more feeling of degradation in sending his children, than he now has in using a high road provided in like manner at the common expense.

STATE OF MORALS AND COMFORTS IN NEW ENGLAND AND IN NEW YORK, AND ALSO IN THE SLAVE STATES.

All the testimony we can collect tends to support the opinion, that a high tone of morals prevails in New England; and, though not in so great a degree, in New York also; and the mass of the people of both appear to be living in a style of comfort, of which no other people in the world can boast. Mr. Crawford states that there is in New England no class corresponding with the lowest class in this country: all are raised above it; and the filth, rags, and drunkenness, which here so frequently meet the eye, are there never to be seen. Great security exists both for life and property; especially in New England; and of the offences which do take place, a very considerable portion are committed by foreigners: in proof of this we may mention, that of 180 convicts in the state prison of Connecticut, only 108 are natives of Connecticut.

With these general remarks we proceed to a more detailed comparison between the condition of the people in New England and New York on the one hand, and England on the other; and also to compare the condition of the people in each of these countries with their condition in the American slave states.

Crime.—Mr. Crawford, in his Report on American Penitentiaries, writes thus:—"It is well known that the

population of New England ranks far superior to any other part of the Union in morals and intelligence. Education is universal, the laws are ably administered, the police is well regulated, and pauperism is limited; and yet the returns in the Appendix tend to show that there is more crime in proportion to the population in the most enlightened of these states, viz. Connecticut and Massachusetts, than in Pennsylvania, (part of which is but recently settled,) or in the more western states, which are comparatively uncivilized. The false impression which these statements are in this respect calculated to convey is in a great measure to be ascribed to the fact, that in New England few crimes pass undetected and escape punishment; but this is far from being the case in other parts of the Union. As the traveller proceeds towards the western and southern states, he will find that the numbers in the penitentiaries must not be taken as the extent of even the higher classes of offences: in many counties of even New York and Pennsylvania, and still more of those of other states, offences pass unprosecuted, which in New England would scarcely fail to incur punishment."—Page 25.

"We hope," says Mr. Webster, in his speech on the revision of the constitution of Massachusetts, "to continue and prolong the time when in the villages and farm-houses of New England there may be undisturbed sleep within unbarred doors."

Mr. Hodgson says, when writing from New England, "Pilfering, house-breaking, highway robbery, and murder, are far less common here than with us." —Vol. ii. p. 253.

Little can be done by comparing the statistical

returns of convictions in New England and our own country, because, as we have already seen, the number of prosecutions, even if that number could be clearly ascertained, is seldom a true index of the amount of crime. We shall, however, be safe perhaps in assuming, that the most heinous of all offences, murder, is generally followed by detection and punishment both in New England and our own country; and that from the rarity of the offence, and the excitement in the public mind produced by its commission, the record of the number of prosecutions may be relied on. It must, however, be borne in mind, that the very smallness of the numbers, though a security against error of one kind, is itself a source of erroneous deduction. It will generally be supposed, either that for every murderer executed there is a murder committed,—or at least, that from the number of murderers executed the number of murders committed may be inferred. In the case of averages struck from large numbers, the supposition is correct; doubtless some proportion may be found which will almost always hold good: but in comparing small numbers, it will be necessary, in order to guard against error, to inquire into the cases of the individual offenders; to ascertain whether each one committed a separate murder, or whether two or more have not suffered for the same; and again, whether the perpetrators of the murder were resident inhabitants, brought up in the country, or foreigners, for whose conduct the institutions of the country are in no respect answerable? Not having the means of replying to these questions, we cannot venture to draw any decisive inference from a comparison of the two accounts; we proceed, how-

ever, to state the facts in as complete a form as we can obtain them.

In the seven years ending with 1832, the average number of persons executed for murder in England and Wales was 13; that is, there was about one execution for murder for every million of inhabitants. In the state of Vermont, which contains rather more than a quarter of a million of inhabitants, and where the offence of murder is equally a capital offence, there has not been a single execution either for that or any other offence since the year 1814; whereas, if the number of executions had been in proportion to the population, as compared with this country, there would have been at least *five* executions in that period for murder alone. In Massachusetts on the other hand, the number of executions for murder (which are indeed the only executions that have taken place for many years) have exceeded the proportion of population. The population of Massachusetts is somewhat below 700,000. Taking England as a standard of comparison, we should expect to find between four and five executions in the last seven years; yet there have in fact been *eight*. Still, we cannot safely draw any inference from this, without knowing (which we do not) whether the murders on account of which these executions took place were perpetrated by natives or foreigners, and how many separate murders were committed. We observe that in one instance the punishment was for *piracy* and murder: in this case, at least, we should think it very probable that the offence was committed by a foreigner.

Slave States.—In these states the records of punishment form but a very imperfect index of the amount of crime. Both the law itself and the administration

of the law are wretchedly bad; the law being anything but a code of morality, and its administration grossly partial. For, in the first place, the worst of all robberies—that of human flesh—is passed over as no offence; while on the other hand, the very best act a man can perform—that which of all others tends most to secure peace and happiness to society—the communication of knowledge,—instead of securing the approbation and gratitude of the legislature, is positively laid down as a crime, and visited with punishment. Again, one set of punishments is awarded to freemen—that is, to whites—and another to slaves; the latter being of course by far the most severe. Thus in Virginia:—Mr. Abdy, in his interesting and instructive account of his Tour in America lately published, says,—"There are but two capital crimes in Virginia, murder and arson; *i. e.* for the whites:—while the punishment of death is affixed to more than *seventy* offences of which slaves may be convicted; such as horse-stealing, hog-stealing for the third time, forgery in all its branches, from the imitation or uttering of a bank-note, to the wilful possession of false papers of freedom."

But great as is the amount of injustice which is recognised and enforced by the law itself, that injustice becomes yet greater by the manner in which the law is administered. From the belief that the punishment of death when inflicted on a white tends to degrade the favoured class in the eyes of the slave population, juries often acquit persons charged with capital offences in the teeth of the plainest evidence. An instance of this occurred lately at Charleston whilst

a friend of ours was residing there: the prisoner was charged with murder, and the crime was fully brought home to him; nevertheless, by the verdict of the jury, he escaped with impunity. Mr. Abdy gives an instance of fearful cruelty in New Orleans which was perpetrated by whites, and which passed by unpunished. It will be observed by our extract, that the transaction is of recent date; and that the statement, as made by Mr. Abdy, was recorded in a newspaper published in the very town where the occurrence took place. There is good ground therefore for believing the report to be accurate.

"A most horrible case of barbarity occurred last year [1833] at New Orleans. The Mercantile Advertiser of that city, after stating that a fire had broken out in a house where several slaves were supposed to be confined in chains, adds: 'The crowd rushed in to their deliverance, and amongst others, Mr. Canonge, judge of the criminal court, who demanded of Mr. and Mrs. Salaurie where these poor creatures were kept? which they obstinately refused to disclose; when Mr. Canonge, with a manly and praiseworthy zeal, rushed into the kitchen, which was on fire, followed by two or three young men, and brought forth a negro woman, found there chained: she was covered with bruises and wounds from severe flogging.

"'All the apartments were then forced open. In a room on the ground-floor, two more were found chained, and in a deplorable condition. Up-stairs, and in the garret, four more were found chained; some so weak as to be unable to walk, and all covered with wounds and sores. One, a mulatto boy, de-

clares himself to have been chained for five months, being fed daily with only a handful of meal, and receiving every morning the most cruel treatment.'

"I was informed by persons who were there at the time, that these poor creatures were gagged to prevent their cries; that the perpetrators of these enormities were never punished; and that, when the excitement of the moment was over, public opinion threw obstacles in the way of justice, and palliated what had been done."

Abdy's Tour in America, vol. ii. p. 392.

No such desire exists to palliate an offence committed by a *slave;*—nay, the very evidence of his having really committed the offence of which he is charged, is examined with anything but a critical eye; as the butchery of negroes at Charleston in 1822 bears witness. On that occasion, 67 persons were convicted on very suspicious evidence, and without a jury, of the offence of conspiring against men who during every hour of their lives had been committing a robbery upon them—the robbery of their labour. Upon this charge, before such a court, and on such evidence, were these poor men convicted; and no fewer than *thirty-five* were actually hanged. As if to add to the suffering of the unfortunate men who were about to be led to the scaffold, the hypocrite who pretended to act as judge on the occasion upbraided the prisoners with having broken the laws of God as well as those of man, in not rendering willing obedience to their "masters."

Not only is there partiality in the administration of the law where distinction of colour interferes, but there appears to be great laxity in its enforcement

even when all parties concerned are whites. Mr. Crawford thus describes the condition in this respect of the western and southern states, in all of which there is either slavery or a very low state of civilization:—"There exists in those parts of the country a great recklessness of human life: personal insult is resented by the immediate gratification of revenge. A custom prevails of carrying pocket-pistols, or of wearing a dirk in the bosom; while scarcely any of the labouring classes are without a large clasped knife, which, opening with a spring, becomes a truly formidable weapon. Hence, assaults of the most desperate character in the public streets frequently occur, and death to the parties often ensues. Prosecutions, however, arising out of these acts of violence, are by no means common. These offences pass in many instances, in a legal sense, entirely unnoticed. An appeal to a court of justice, in such cases, would not be sanctioned by public opinion; and even if the offender were brought before a jury, they would enter into a consideration of the provocation given by the parties, and discountenance by their verdict the practice of rendering such acts amenable to the ordinary course of criminal justice.

"The following fact, in illustration of these remarks, was related to me by a most respectable clergyman of the state in which the circumstance occurred. A gentleman residing in Alabama received a slight personal affront, which, having been privately offered, he was disposed to pass unnoticed. The affair, however, became known, and it was suggested to him that he must resent the insult or withdraw from society. On receiving this intimation, he immediately

repaired, armed with a brace of pistols, to a neighbouring town, the residence of his opponent, and shot him as he was walking in the public streets. This was of course a matter of notoriety, yet no legal proceedings were adopted. The gentleman, on his return home, was then received into the circle of his acquaintance. They said that the satisfaction which he had taken was, it was true, somewhat late; but that this circumstance would be overlooked in consideration of his having promptly acted on the suggestion which had been made to him. I should add, that the newspapers of the southern and western states make frequent mention of assaults of this murderous character* confirmatory of the condition of society which this anecdote implies. I have related it in different states, and repeatedly heard its main features corroborated by similar narratives. On referring, however, to the tables of commitments in those parts of the country, it will appear that the number of prisoners convicted of crimes of this nature is remarkably small."—*Crawford's Report*, p. 26.

The practice of going armed, which, as an indication of insecurity and the prevalence of crime, is of far greater importance than a hundred statistical returns of the number of convictions before courts of justice, is noticed by many travellers. The frequent practice of duelling, and the great extent to which the habit of gambling exists in the slave states, may also be pointed out as sure indications of a comparatively reckless, immoral, and barbarous state of society.

* These occurrences are usually termed "shooting a man down."

All travellers appear to agree in the existence of a general appearance of comfort in the New England states, and in the almost entire absence of mendicity. We have already given the result of Mr. Crawford's observation on this point. Major Hamilton says, "Wealth is more equally distributed in the New England states than perhaps in any other country of the world. There are here no overgrown fortunes: abject poverty is rarely seen, but moderate opulence everywhere. This is as it should be:—who would wish for the introduction of the palace, if it must be accompanied by the poor-house?

"There are few beggars to be found in the streets of Boston; but some there are, both there and at New York. These, however, I am assured, are all foreigners, or people of colour; and my own observations go to confirm the assertion. Nine-tenths of those by whom I have been importuned for charity were evidently Irish."

When speaking of the state of education in New England, we gave an extract from Mr. Hodgson's Travels, which shows that he thinks highly of the condition of the inhabitants. In a subsequent part of his work, Mr. Hodgson states, that during the first year of his residence in America (the greater portion of which was passed in the north-eastern states) he saw only three beggars. Mr. Kempson, from whose examination before the Factory Commissioners we have already made extracts, states, in reply to a question respecting the kind of food usually consumed by the New England workmen, that they have meat twice

a day, and that indeed their diet is much the same as that of persons of the wealthy classes.

Mr. Stuart, speaking of Boston, says,—" There is more wealth, in proportion to the population, in Boston than in any of the other cities of this continent.

* * * * * *

" The city is clean and well-paved, and seems to be not only entirely free of beggars, but of any population that is not apparently living comfortably. I did not observe a single individual in the streets of the city who was not well apparelled, nor an individual of what we call the lower orders. Even at New York, during the few days I was there, I observed some small districts of the city where cleanliness was less attended to than in others, and where there were indications, especially among the coloured people, that dissolute habits prevailed in some degree; but at Boston there is not the semblance of idleness or filth among the people anywhere. All are, or seem to be, in the full enjoyment of the necessaries of life, and all busy, active, and employed. What a contrast in these respects between this city and the city of Dublin! which, in the month of July 1827, I saw crowded with beggars almost naked, even in the heart of it; and on the arrival of a mail-coach in Sackville-street, scrambling for a few halfpence which the passengers threw among them."—*Stuart's Travels*, vol. i. p. 302.

Mr. Stuart speaks in strong terms also of the neatness of the villages in New England, and of the air of comfort which prevails; and he quotes also, and we think properly so, the opinion of Mr. Cooper, the highly-gifted American author. The authority of an American, in a matter relating to his own country

as compared with England, may be protested against; but we should recollect that an Englishman is just as likely to err in one direction as an American is in the other.—"New England," says Mr. Cooper, "may justly glory in her villages: in space, freshness, and air of neatness, of comfort, they far exceed anything I have ever seen even in the mother-country. I have passed in one day six or seven of these beautiful hamlets, for not one of which have I been able to recollect an equal in the course of all my European travelling."—*Stuart's Travels*, vol. i. p. 295.

The replies to the queries sent out under the direction of the Poor Law Commissioners to the British Consuls residing in New England are strongly confirmatory of the foregoing statements. They show that there is a constant demand for labour; that the remuneration afforded is great; and that the ordinary scale of living is unusually high—higher, indeed, than in any other country in the world. The answers are confined to the states of Massachusetts, Maine, and New Hampshire; we presume that there are not any English consuls in the other New England states. The following are extracts from the replies: the fullest answers are those from Massachusetts.

MORAL CHECK TO EXCESSIVE INCREASE IN POPULATION. *(Massachusetts.)*—"Early engagements to marry are very common; but the men are generally cool and calculating, and often delay fulfilling such engagements from three to seven years, or until they feel capable of supporting a family."—*Poor Law Report*, 684. F. The average age at marriage appears to be from twenty-one to twenty-six for males, and from eighteen to twenty-two for females.

PROFITABLE EMPLOYMENT. *(Massachusetts.)*—"All here who are capable and inclined to work may find employment."

WAGES. *(Massachusetts.)*—"First-rate mechanics, from two to three dollars per day; carpenters, masons, &c. one dollar and a half, or 6*s.* 9*d.* sterling per day; labourers, one and a quarter dollar in Boston, and one dollar in the country, per day. Agricultural labourers, in harvest-time, from one to one and a half dollar per day; those boarded and lodged, from fourteen to eighteen dollars per month for the six summer and autumn months, and some the same all the year; others, from ten to twelve dollars, during winter, per month. Domestics in private families, from ten to eighteen dollars per month during the whole year.

"What in the whole might an average labourer, obtaining an average amount of employment, both in day-work and in piece-work, expect to earn in a year, including harvest-work, and the value of all his advantages and means of living?—I am of opinion, and so are many of the best judges whom I have consulted, that labourers earn on an average from two hundred and fifty to three hundred dollars, or from 56*l.* 5*s.* to 67*l.* 10*s.* sterling per annum. Able mechanics, more than double those sums. Women, at the factories, earn from two and a half to five dollars [from 11*s.* 3*d.* to 22*s.* 6*d.*] per week."

Poor Law Report, 683. F.

STYLE OF LIVING. *(Massachusetts.)*—"There are very few who do not eat meat, poultry, or fish, twice or three times a day.

"The self-supported labourers in general live much better than the majority of English farmers. Very

few earn less than 4*s.* 6*d.* sterling per day. They and their families are amply supplied with meat, fish, or poultry, every day."—683. F.

It appears, too, that the agricultural labourer is able thus amply to provide for his family without sending his children to work at too tender an age, and without the mother being withdrawn from her domestic occupations to work occasionally in the fields. The following are from different parts of the Report:—"Women are chiefly employed in the management of their domestic concerns."—"Women never do any harvest work."—"Children are generally employed at school; very few in agriculture, and scarcely any under fourteen at the factories."

PAUPERISM AND MENDICITY. *(Massachusetts.)*—"The number of persons who receive permanent relief as paupers is so small, that it is impossible to estimate the effect which such relief, or the expectation thereof, has produced relative to the matters which are the subject of the first four questions. The proportion of those who receive relief does not in the whole amount to five per cent. upon the population; and of these a very great majority only receive casual and temporary assistance. The permanent poor consist entirely of the aged and impotent."

Poor Law Report, 683. F.

"Mendicity is by no means prevalent; indeed very few instances thereof occur, and these are mostly confined to emigrants recently arrived."—680. F.

New Hampshire and Maine.—"There is scarcely an application to individuals for money, clothes, or victuals, except by travelling foreigners."

NEW YORK.—The report for New York is not

so favourable in some respects as that for New England. Pauperism and mendicity appear to exist there to rather a considerable extent; and as profitable employment is apparently as readily procured as in New England, and as wages are reported to be as high, we must look for other causes than an insufficient remuneration for labour to explain this difference.

It appears, that there is a profuse and indiscriminate distribution of charitable funds at New York, and at the same time no provision for the able-bodied but idle labourer;—no place to which he can instantly be removed when found begging, and put on a regimen of hard work and spare diet. These two circumstances fully account to our mind for the prevalence of mendicity at New York. Speaking of the public charities, Mr. Buchanan (the British Consul) says, "No city in any other country has more ample accommodation, more splendid buildings, or abounds more in a generous disposition towards the poor. I should be unjust did I not bear this testimony. In fact, their liberality is not meted out by country or creed; and hence thousands crowd this city to partake of the liberal provision made, and as liberally distributed."

Slave States. — Wealth, in the slave states, consists very much in a commodity which in free states never enters into calculation in counting the riches of a country,—we mean *human labour*. And in this commodity also is wealth measured. For whereas in England we talk of a man being worth 10,000*l.* or 20,000*l.*, in Virginia he is said to be worth five hundred or a thousand *slaves*. For our part, we should as much think of looking with pride on the accumulations of Ikey Solomons, or of any other re-

ceiver of stolen goods, as on hoards of wealth of this kind. As for the slaves themselves,—robbed of the use of their very muscles and sinews,—they are poor indeed; although it certainly appears that mendicity does not exist to any considerable extent among them. The reason why there should be little mendicity, however, is obvious. To turn adrift old worn-out slaves to feed upon other people's property, would, in slave states, be looked upon as very much like turning so many cattle into a neighbour's field—an act which the common interests of society have caused to be punished as an offence; and as happily the feelings even of the planters themselves would not allow the old slaves to be disposed of in the way that broken-down horses too often are—namely, by cutting their throats,—the only alternative left is maintaining them themselves.

It appears, however, that though, as we have remarked, the common interest of the planters will not allow the old slaves to be turned adrift in their own country, yet neighbouring free states are sometimes looked upon as fair prey in this respect. Whilst at Cincinnati, the capital of the free state of Ohio, Mr. Abdy found that it was no uncommon thing for the people in the neighbouring slave state of Kentucky to carry a slave who had become a burden to them across the river, and land him on the Ohio side, to pick up a miserable subsistence by begging or stealing.

DRUNKENNESS.—Had we been writing ten years ago, it would have been difficult to say which country, England or the north-eastern states of America, was most addicted to this disgusting vice,—the prolific source of poverty, crime, and misery. Thanks, however, as we believe, to the extensive means for circulating

knowledge in America, principally by newspapers, and to the intelligence of the people, which enables them to weigh evidence and appreciate facts, a reform in the habits of the people has taken place, as regards drunkenness, which for rapidity is altogether unprecedented in the annals of history. We are far from thinking that the whole of the good work is yet accomplished, — we know that much remains to be done: but, looking at what has been effected, and considering how short the time is in which this has been brought about, we feel that we are guilty of no exaggeration in the assertion we have made. Massachusetts has the honour of having set the first example in this as in many other good works. So early as the year 1813, a society was formed at Boston for the "Suppression of Intemperance." This society did not attempt to do more than induce moderation in the use of distilled spirits; it did not at once advance to the bold and successful plan of the Temperant societies, by attempting to abolish their use altogether. Perhaps, as the pioneer of improvement, the "Massachusetts' Society" adopted the wisest plan. Its operations certainly produced much immediate good, and doubtless were highly instrumental in preparing the public mind for the extraordinary effects that followed.

In the year 1826, the "American Temperance Society" was formed on the principle of complete abstinence; and since that time the course has been constant and rapid: and as the reform which has taken place is based on a knowledge of the evils of intemperance, and a full conviction that the great objects of existence are forwarded, and the real enjoyments of life

increased by habits of sobriety, we have little fear of the American people falling back again into that state from which, by a noble effort, they have rescued themselves. Would that we saw a prospect of as speedy and permanent a reform in the lower classes of this country! Here, however, there are not the same means of distributing knowledge in an acceptable form; nor, we fear, are the lowest classes of the English people at present prepared to receive much of the good seed if it could be scattered. Until our countrymen have acquired the power of reading as readily as the inhabitants of New England, and until periodical literature is as cheap among us as with them, we have but little hope of seeing Temperant societies flourish in this country to the same degree as in America.

We should not venture to place great confidence in the reports which appear of the progress of the American Temperant societies, (not knowing by what means the facts are collected, or who is responsible for their accuracy,) did not other evidence, especially that derived from the personal observation of Englishmen who have visited America, confirm their general accuracy. Mr. Crawford, as we have already mentioned, states that he very seldom indeed saw a drunken man when in New England: and though at New York the same degree of abstinence does not exist, Mr. Crawford says, that provided the observer keep out of that part of the town where the Irish emigrants reside, he will not see more drunkenness in that city in twelve months than may be seen on Holborn Hill in a single day. At the tables of the richer classes, too, the use of ardent spirits is rapidly disappearing; and as malt liquor is not commonly drunk in

America, the change that takes place is generally at once from distilled spirits to pure water. Mr. Crawford says, that he has several times dined on board a steam-packet with a large party of passengers without seeing any other beverage than water taken.

The following information respecting the progress of temperance in America was communicated by Dr. Humphreys, President of Amherst College, at a meeting held in London a short time ago. Dr. Humphreys came over from America as one of a deputation from the principal American Temperant Society, to concert measures with the leading members of the British Temperant Society, for the yet more vigorous prosecution of their common object.

Dr. Humphreys reports that there are at present no fewer than 7,000 Temperant societies in America; one of which counts among its members a majority of the two Houses of Congress. The total number of members in Temperant societies is nearly a million and a half. There is no longer any allowance of rum or ardent spirit of any other kind in either the American army or navy; and in no fewer than 1,200 merchant ships also the use of ardent spirits is totally abolished. A great number of distilleries have been abandoned; and as many as 5,000 dealers in spirits have given up their trade; to be engaged in which is now looked upon as immoral and degrading. In the county of Plymouth (Massachusetts), the population of which however is but a few thousands, there is not now a single vender of ardent spirits.

Slave States.—We have but little direct evidence as to the character of the people in the slave states for drunkenness or sobriety. There is not, however, any

reason to believe that the great reformation so honourable to the northern states has extended to their southern neighbours.

FEMALE PROSTITUTION.—Mr. Hodgson says, that "the cities, except New Orleans, present nothing of the disgusting effrontery and unblushing profligacy which the streets of our large towns exhibit after dark; and in the country the female manners are distinguished by a very remarkable degree of propriety." This statement, so far as relates to the cities of Boston and New York, is confirmed by other evidence.

In the slave states, the most heartless and profligate intercourse appears to exist. Nothing can illustrate this more strongly than a conversation which took place in Mr. Stuart's presence at the public breakfast-table of a stage-coach inn, between two inhabitants of Virginia, one a planter and the other a physician:—

"The planter and doctor seemed to be on intimate terms, which rendered their conversation tolerably unreserved. The doctor asked the planter what could have induced him to stay at such and such a plantation during the unhealthy season. I shall never forget the *sang froid* with which the question was answered by his friend. He said, he found that half a dozen of the girls could not longer be trusted without a husband, for one of them had been already seized by the blacksmith at the gate; and that he thought it was not only for his interest, but that of the plantation generally, that he should be the first husband. This answer of course gave rise to a great deal of merriment among the friends; and the doctor, who gave us

accounts of his management of his own slaves of a similar kind, of course admitted the validity of the reason. In the course of the conversation which followed, it turned out that this planter was frequently waited upon at table by his own children, and had actually sent some of them to the public market to be sold as slaves."*—*Stuart's Travels*, vol. ii. p. 127.

In another place Mr. Stuart says,—"Marriage among the slaves is generally allowed: but when a young man has a fine family, the planter very often, with a view to the increase of his stock, forces him to have many wives; and, in the same way, married females are often obliged to receive more husbands than one, as the planter may order. In fact, the slaves are as much obliged to obey the commands of their masters in respect to sexual intercourse as anything else; the effects of which upon their morals may be easily conceived. Such a system is no doubt discouraged by many of the masters whose dispositions are humane; but that this evil does exist to a great extent is unquestionably true."—Vol. ii. p. 119.

POLITICAL TUMULTS, RIOTS, INCENDIARISM, AND PERSECUTION.

As regards political tumults and riots, England and the north-eastern states of America are perhaps to-

* Major Hamilton corroborates Mr. Stuart's statement of the existence of this most revolting practice:—"It will scarcely be believed," says he, "that in the United States it is common for fathers to sell their children, for sons to sell their brothers and their sisters; and that atrocities so heinous are unvisited by public indignation or contempt. And yet it is so. The smallest infusion of negro blood is held to abrogate not only the charities of life, but the ties of nature."—*Men and Manners in America*, vol. ii. p. 223.

lerably equal: but the disgrace of incendiarism, which unhappily attaches in so great a degree to England, does not, so far as we are aware, extend at all to America.

Mr. Stuart's authority, if taken alone, would lead us to the conclusion that one kind of political tumults, namely, those which sometimes accompany elections, rarely if ever occur in America; but we fear that the profound tranquillity with which, according to his account, the business of elections is transacted, is by no means universally found. A friend of ours who was present at New York during the time of an election of members of the Congress was witness to serious riots, although there was nothing peculiarly exciting in the circumstances of the particular election.

The political tumults which took place lately on account of the tariff do not enter into consideration at present, because they did not occur in New England or New York: but we all know that both these states were disturbed not more than a year ago by violent and disgraceful riots, originating in distinctions of colour and creed.

We had indeed hoped that the states of New England and New York had at least attained such a degree of intelligence and civilization as would secure the great mass of the population from the absurd animosities in which these riots originated; and in common, we are sure, with thousands in this country, the news of these disgusting outbreaks filled us with mortification and disappointment. We were not so much surprised that a burst of ignorance and violence should take place at Philadelphia, because we are aware that education in that state has been very much neglected:

even there, however, we hoped that the people would never be guilty of such outrages as these. But that the city of New York, and above all that of Boston,—where at least some amount of education has been afforded,—meagre as it is,—that these places should become scenes of blind, ignorant, and brutal violence, we certainly should have pronounced to be impossible.

At New York many houses were plundered, and several lives were lost. One poor negro died of the wounds he had received, and another was drowned in attempting to swim across the river to escape the fury of the white mob.

The cruel treatment of Miss Crandall and her pupils at Canterbury, in Connecticut, is of a piece with that system of persecution which is kept up even in the most enlightened of the American states towards the coloured population. Miss Crandall's offence consisted in opening a school for girls of colour. Not yielding to the representations of the "select men" of the town, who urged her to abandon her undertaking, and having too much courage to be overawed by a series of resolutions passed at a public meeting, called expressly to take measures for putting a stop to the school, this lady was assailed by a course of dastardly persecution, which, had there been a dozen persons in the whole village worthy of the name of *men*, it would have been absolutely impossible to carry on. Stones and other missiles were thrown in at the windows to such an extent, that the inmates were obliged to keep in those parts of the rooms which were protected by angles in the wall. A quantity of manure was thrown into the well belonging to the house to spoil the water, and none of the neighbours

would allow Miss Crandall to have water from them. One of her scholars falling sick, the physician of the place would not visit her; and when a neighbouring physician came and prescribed some medicine, the apothecary refused to make up the prescription. Offensive placards were stuck on the house, and the handles of the doors were covered with filth; and whenever Miss Crandall ventured to take the children out to walk, they were hooted after and pelted. Undismayed by this disgraceful persecution, Miss Crandall resolutely persevered in performing what she rightly conceived to be a high and important duty, until at length the legislature of the state, in compliance with petitions which had been presented, actually became party to this cruel, ignorant, and disgusting conduct, by passing a law having for its direct object the shutting up of the school. The news of the passing of this act was received at Canterbury amidst the ringing of bells, the firing of cannon, and the lighting of bonfires. But the fortitude of this noble-minded lady was not to be overcome even by the thunders of the state legislature. Resting on the justice of her cause, she determined to yield to nothing but actual force, and steadily persisted in continuing her school. She was then summoned to appear before a magistrate, who ordered her instantly to desist from her proceeding; and on her refusing to submit, she was thrown into prison; the cell assigned her being one that had been just quitted by a murderer. On the day of trial, however, (for the prosecution was carried throughout,) the jury could not agree in their verdict, and Miss Crandall was consequently set at liberty. Undaunted by the treatment she had received, she instantly

resumed her task of teaching; was again arrested, again put in prison, and this time was found "guilty," and sentenced to two months' imprisonment.

It must be remarked, that what we have been narrating is not an affair of other times; that it did not occur even in the early part of the present century; but is a thing of the other day. It is but little more than two years since Miss Crandall first attempted to open her school. The facts of the case are of public notoriety, and of their truth there is unfortunately no doubt. Unhappily, too, it does not stand forward as an isolated case of persecution, opposed to the general tenor of the conduct of the whites towards the coloured population.

One cause of this conduct is a spirit of base truckling towards the slave-owners of the southern states: this it is that prompts much of the ill-usage of the "free" people of colour. "Endure our tariff and we will wink at your slavery," is the tacit proposal of many of the inhabitants of the northern states to those of the south: in other words, "Bear with our partial slavery in commerce, and we will not find fault with the total slavery in which you bind down two millions of your fellow-creatures."

It is consolatory to learn, that an effort is at length making to wipe off this deep stain from the character of the inhabitants of the northern states. Mr. Abdy reports, that during the short time even of his residence in America a considerable number of anti-slavery societies were formed; and we have seen that when once the Americans (we mean the inhabitants of the *free* states—we wish the others were called by a different name) enter upon the right road, they

travel very swiftly. We have strong hopes that the feeling which at present gives rise to so much unjust and cruel treatment of the people of colour in the northern states will disappear as rapidly as the vicious taste for ardent spirits has died away. Why should not the means which have been so eminently successful in diminishing drunkenness be applied to drive out of existence the demoralizing prejudice against people of a particular colour? If a few of the most enlightened inhabitants of one of the New England states would form a society in which the common link of union should be an agreement totally to disregard colour in their demeanour to their fellow-men, a very important step would be taken; other societies would soon spring into existence—systematic efforts would be made to diffuse knowledge on the subject—the most intelligent portion of the people would soon become aware that the comparatively low state of morality among the coloured population, instead of being a valid excuse for the treatment they receive, is in fact the *result* of that treatment,—and in a short time the strength of the better portion of public opinion would be concentrated in favour of complete and *practical* emancipation. And let this once become the case in the northern states, and the tenure of slavery in the southern states will become feeble and insecure; for, deprived of all countenance and sympathy from those whom they cannot but look upon as their superiors, and as taking the lead in the intelligence and virtue of the country—unable longer to cheat themselves into the belief that their conduct is justifiable—aware too of the increasing strength of public feeling against them—the southern slave-owners would pro-

bably be glad to adopt any plan which would save them from convulsion on the one hand and ruinous loss on the other, and which would lead gradually but surely to the complete emancipation of the slaves.

In weighing the merits and demerits of the New Englanders, we have dwelt at perhaps unreasonable length on the treatment to which they subject their own coloured population, and their want of sympathy with the poor slaves of the South. We could not, however, pass lightly over a subject which presents by far the greatest drawback on the many virtues and excellences of the New Englanders. In comparing this nation however, even in this particular, with ourselves, rather than with an ideal standard of perfection, we must bear in mind that the date of the emancipation of the slave population of our own colonies is still very recent, and that even now the freedom which they enjoy is of a very imperfect kind;—in a word, that though there is no doubt that in a few years slavery under any form will not be found in any land under British rule, yet at present slavery is rather expunged from the statute-book than practically put an end to.

SLAVE STATES.—PERSECUTION, POLITICAL TUMULTS, RIOTS, INCENDIARISM, ETC.

It were useless to enlarge on the subject of persecution in the slave states. The very name of *slave states* implies a land of bitter and unceasing persecution; and facts in an endless current, some few of which we have brought forward, confirm the truth of the implication. Shut out from the faintest glimmering of knowledge (so far as their jealous keepers can

contrive), and then taunted with ignorance,—deprived of all honourable motives for labour, and then reproached for idleness,—debarred from all hope of justice for wrongs inflicted on them by others, and then rated at for their own immorality,—these poor beings drag on a life which, while it possesses no other gratifications than those enjoyed in an equal degree by the animals of the brute creation, is loaded with persecutions from which the latter are happily exempt. Who if existence were forced upon him, and he were allowed only the choice between the life of the American slave and of the English horse, would not prefer the latter, badly as that animal is too often used in this country?

No wonder that there should be constant fears of tumults and insurrections on the part of the slaves and "free" people of colour. Knowing full well that with rare exceptions they possess not the smallest hold on the affections of the slaves, and that while the mighty wrong of slavery continues, it would be vain to attempt by any petty concessions to the demands of justice and humanity to conciliate their good-will, the white man endeavours, by adding new terrors to the law, and by enacting scenes of blood like that of Charleston — the *autos-da-fe* for upholding slavery— to obtain by fear what he has no hope of securing by any worthy motive. The contest, however, is a hopeless one: it may be protracted, but in the end the system must be abandoned; that which to-day inspires terror, is to-morrow looked upon with indifference: for whatever tends yet more to embitter life, renders us at the same time more callous about preserving it. There must, therefore, be a constantly in-

creasing array of terrors to keep the slave in subjection. Meantime, the "pressure from without" begins to be felt; every step in civilization widens the sphere of our sympathies for our fellow-beings; and the time cannot be far distant, when either this execrable system of slavery must be put an end to by the parties engaged, or outraged humanity will demand its annihilation in a voice that admits not either disobedience or delay.

If we rightly appreciate the facts brought forward in the preceding section of our work, they afford strong presumptive proof (the data, and the evidence on which they rest, are not perhaps sufficient to warrant absolute conclusions) that the inhabitants of New England and (though not in the same degree) of New York are more generally educated and better informed than the people of this country, taken in the average; and that there is at the same time less crime, drunkenness, pauperism, and female prostitution among them than among the English people: further, that their supply of positive comforts and luxuries is greater than ours.

In comparing the American slave states with either New England and New York, or with our own country, any doubt which may exist in the preceding comparison disappears. Looking at the population of these states, as it must be looked upon, without regard to distinctions of colour, we can have no hesitation in declaring, that, as well in education and knowledge as in wealth and virtue, the people of the slave states are immeasurably behind their kindred, whether of New England, of New York, or of the mother-country.

PRESENT STATE OF EDUCATION IN PRUSSIA.

THE state of education in Prussia has lately excited great attention, in consequence of the interesting and able report of Monsieur Cousin, who was appointed by the French government to visit Prussia, and obtain in person, and on the spot, all information possible relative to the Prussian institutions for national education, with a view to their introduction in France.

M. Cousin appears to have been very courteously received by the Prussian authorities, and to have had every facility afforded him for pursuing his inquiries. His report is exceedingly favourable. He speaks in the highest terms of all he saw or heard, and pleads earnestly for the adoption of the Prussian system in France. Nor has he pleaded in vain; for a bill embodying some of the plans described in his report was immediately introduced into the Chamber of Deputies. The bill passed into a law, and has now been in operation for twelve months; and the experiment, so far as it has been carried, appears to have succeeded.

It is very difficult to know how far it is safe to depend on M. Cousin's report. Unquestionably many of his statements are supported by internal evidence. He does not satisfy himself with giving a mere string of decrees in favour of education; such, for instance, as that the Prussian law *ordains* that every child shall be at school from the age of seven to fourteen, and *requires* that each child shall make certain acquirements. If

nothing more than such statements as these had appeared, we should have considered the report as so much waste paper.

M. Cousin, however, does not stop here. Though, as we shall see, his report is deficient in some important particulars, he at least gives in detail the means by which much that is laid down may be carried into effect; and these means are apparently sufficient for the purpose. At all events, it must be evident to any one familiar with the subject, that those who arranged the machinery by which the Prussian system is carried on, were acting with a real and earnest desire for the attainment of the objects pointed out. Traces, too, of a master's hand and a benevolent heart are frequently to be found. There is but little that is calculated for mere show and effect: the simplest and best means are in most cases adopted.

Still, it must be confessed that there are several facts which necessarily throw suspicion on much that is advanced. In the first place, *there is a censorship of the press* in Prussia. While this lasts, it must be difficult to expose any fallacy which may exist in the statements put forth by the government: indeed, a moment's consideration will show, that with such an institution in existence, there can be no security for the truth of any official assertions.

We do not, it is true, depend exclusively upon the statements of the Prussian government, inasmuch as M. Cousin reports a good deal from personal observation; still, it must be remarked that this gentleman belongs to a country in which much is held good and desirable, which in England would be called (and deservedly so) a fettering of the mind, and an unjustifi-

able interference of government. This very censorship of the press, for instance, which would have put an Englishman on the alert, and made him look out for fraud of some kind or other, excites no notice whatever from M. Cousin. Again, a glance at the general political institutions of Prussia (of which the censorship referred to is but a specimen) is not calculated to make us think highly of the mental cultivation of the people; while many of the acts of the Prussian government cannot but lower in our opinion the moral state of that nation which can witness them with apparent indifference. We may refer especially to the want of sympathy lately shown in Prussia for the struggling Poles.

What would have been the feelings of the English, if, at the very threshold of their country, a nation had been striving at every sacrifice to throw off a brute power that had long subjected them to the most galling suffering, and the continuance of which rendered national amelioration hopeless! Yet with what coolness did the people of Prussia look on while the exiled patriots who had sought refuge amongst them were either immured in hopeless dungeons, or driven forth from their shelter again to encounter the rage of an offended despot! We shall not pursue this theme. We wished merely to point out the fact, as an indication of the want of that strong social feeling—that warm sympathy between man and man, which is the mere token of civilization, and which it is the noble province of knowledge and virtue to impart.

To return to less exciting topics. Another circumstance which throws discredit to a certain extent on accounts of the excellent state of public education in

Prussia is, that the safety-valve (so to speak) of private schools is wanting. We do not mean that there are no private schools in Prussia; on the contrary, their existence is frequently spoken of in M. Cousin's report;—but what we refer to is this, that the Prussian law decrees that no person shall *be allowed* to open a school on his own account, before passing an examination which must be satisfactory to officers appointed by the government itself. If, therefore, the people be in fact dissatisfied with the public schools, they cannot mark their dissatisfaction and remedy the evil by sending their children to private schools established on a free principle.

This fact, which in our eyes is very important, excites no animadversion from M. Cousin, since with the regulation in question he was already familiarized. Like the censorship of the press, it existed in his own country, and his attention therefore was not likely to be caught by it. Judging, indeed, from the tenor of many of M. Cousin's remarks, we should not expect to find that either the censorship of the press, or what might be called, the censorship of education, would in his eyes be at all objectionable.

Making, however, every allowance for the circumstances under which M. Cousin's report appears, we cannot but consider it a very important and, in many points, an able document.

In a matter however of such importance as the accuracy or inaccuracy of the statements therein contained, every means at our command should be taken for ascertaining the truth; and in our humble opinion the British government would act an enlightened part in sending a commission to Prussia, composed of gen-

tlemen whose report would be received with confidence by the people of this country, and who should be instructed carefully to go over the ground laid down by M. Cousin.

A gentleman of very high standing in all that relates to education, who has recently been in Prussia, assures us that, so far as he had opportunities of observing, M. Cousin's report may be relied on. This gentleman's stay in Prussia, however, was very short, and his visits were confined to Berlin.

With these introductory remarks, we shall proceed to lay before our readers some of the more striking parts of M. Cousin's work, extracting where it is possible from the chaste and admirable translation of Mrs. Austen. We should observe, that the report does not extend beyond the process of education and the circumstances connected therewith; being altogether silent as to the effects produced.

The last report published by the Prussian government on the state of education is for the year 1831. It appears that the population of Prussia in that year, as ascertained by a general census, was (in round numbers) 12,700,000,—about the same as that of England. Of these 12,700,000, it was estimated that 4,700,000, or rather more than a third, were under fourteen years of age; and of these it was calculated that 2,043,000, or nearly one-half, were between the ages of seven and fourteen—or, to speak more definitely, had completed their seventh, but had not entered their fifteenth year. Now the Prussian law requires that every child shall, during the whole of this period, give a portion of his time to education, either in the public or private schools. What means are provided for en-

forcing this clause we shall see presently: but whatever they may be, it would appear (so far as confidence can be placed in the official returns) that the rule is very generally observed. For as the total number of these tyros *de jure* is 2,043,000, the number *de facto*, according to the returns for 1831, is no less than 2,021,000; leaving only 22,000 children in the whole country, or *only one child in a hundred*, for absentees. This is indeed national education, so far at least as numbers go!

It is our sincere wish that this account may prove to be founded on facts—that it may not be found in any way to resemble the reports made with periodic fraud some time ago on the Charter schools in Ireland; and that it may make out its claim to accuracy more satisfactorily than does the Bell or National School Society in this country, to the statement that a million and a half of children are receiving instruction in their schools.

If the Prussian account is in fact trustworthy, and at the same time the education afforded is at all equal to what is laid down as *required* in Mons. Cousin's report, then indeed does Prussia stand pre-eminent for the education afforded to her youth. Some few of the North American states may approach, or perhaps equal, her; but, population for population, she must stand unrivalled; and humble indeed in comparison with her proud display is the most glowing picture that could be drawn of the state of direct education in this country. Not that such humiliation would destroy our pleasure at witnessing a high state of education elsewhere: for, much as it would delight us to see our beloved country forward in the march of edu-

cation, the progress we sigh for is positive not comparative, and joyfully should we hail the stimulating example of an enlightened foreign land.

But as to the nature and extent of the education afforded in Prussia.—On this important subject there is certainly a great deficiency in Mons. Cousin's report, which furnishes but scanty information as to the real amount of knowledge communicated to the children, and the acquirements which they do in fact make. He gives us, as we have seen, a report of the number of children attending the different schools; but to quote the words of Lord Brougham,—"It is an old saying that 'it is not all gold that glitters;' neither is it all education that outwardly looks like it. There is a serious lack of really useful education. You may have many schools, yet very little shall be taught in them,—many children may darken the schoolhouse door, they may talk and buzz there all the day, they may depart to their homes at eventide, and yet, during their attendance so little may have been taught them, as to render it impossible to say that they have been improved farther than the being kept out of harm's way."

Mirror of Parliament, April 1834, p. 1073.

It is not enough to inform us that so many children are at school, and that such and such subjects are laid down in the course of instruction;—nay, it is not enough to do what Mons. Cousin has done, (and in this his report is very superior to the sweeping statements and vague generalities which are so frequently put forth,) to point out the machinery provided for carrying the regulations into effect. The first question that presents itself—that about which all must be

most anxious— that which alone can attract the earnest attention of the many to the examination of the general system—is, *What are the results produced?*"

We are not satisfied with the assertion, that in a particular country there is an excellent system of farming, and that every acre of land is brought into cultivation, unless we are furnished with some notion of the quantity and quality of the crops.

We are not here referring to the want of information in Mons. Cousin's Report, as to the effects produced on the morals, comforts, and happiness of the people of Prussia by their system of education. We have already stated that no information of that kind is given. But assuming as true what we should be the last to deny, namely, that a given amount of good education goes far towards securing a corresponding degree of virtue and happiness, yet we want evidence as to *the existence of this amount of good education.* The test could be found only in a rigid examination of a great number of the children themselves, and of some of those who may have left the schools long enough to have forgotten what they there acquired, unless secured from such a loss by having imbibed a real taste for knowledge. No such an examination appears to have been made by Mons. Cousin. He, indeed, speaks generally of having visited some of the schools in Berlin, and more particularly the normal school at Potsdam. But of the former, and of the country primary schools, he gives no single fact as resulting from his own observation. He merely states generally (and the value of such statements is but little) that he had an opportunity of verifying the accounts of the Prussian minister by his own observa-

tions and inquiry, inasmuch as there were specimens of each kind of school at Berlin.

In point of fact, Mons. Cousin's report, as we have observed, contains little or no information as to the amount of knowledge really communicated, or the habits created. Still, from the skill, good faith, and excellent feeling with which the plans and regulations of the schools appear for the most part to have been drawn up, we are led to hope that a great deal is in fact accomplished. The doubt on this point, however, should, as we have already observed, be cleared up at once by a thorough examination on the spot. The willingness or unwillingness of the Prussian government to allow such an examination would of itself be an important fact.

Although Mons. Cousin's report is deficient in the way we have pointed out, yet in many respects it is most copious and satisfactory. Much that it contains is well worthy of careful examination and adoption; and it must be at once conceded that its author richly deserves the thanks of every country that contemplates the establishment of education on a national plan.

The present system of national education in Prussia was promulgated about sixteen years ago; namely, in the year 1819. Long before that time, however, much had been done in favour of general education. Indeed, popular education in Germany in some form or other dates from the stirring times of the Reformation.

A writer in a late number of the Journal of Education, traces the introduction of the present provision for education in Germany, including Prussia, to the preparation of the youth of the country for passing

the examination previous to *confirmation* as members of the Protestant church. The germ of education being once secured, its growth and extension to other kinds of knowledge was easy and natural. At the beginning of the last century,—according to the able writer of the critique on Mons. Cousin's book in the Edinburgh Review, (see Mrs. Austen's Preface)—schools for training teachers, or *Normal schools* as they have been termed, which form the most striking and important feature of the Prussian system of education, had been introduced. For many years, indeed, these schools appear to have been few in number, and confined to the preparation of young men intended to become teachers in Seminaries of classic learning. Towards the latter part of the century, however, Normal schools for training teachers for the poorer classes were established. In 1806, there were not fewer than 14 of these schools distributed in different parts of the country; since then great improvements have taken place in their management, and their number has also much increased. There are now not less than 33 Normal schools jointly sending out every year about 750 young men prepared by practice as well as direct instruction to fill the office of schoolmaster. We shall give a fuller account of these schools presently.

The education law of 1819, appears to have had for its object not so much the creation of new plans of proceeding, as the systematising and perfecting of what, though already in existence, was in an unconnected and incongruous form. This law or royal ordinance lays down in the clearest terms the obligation of each district to support an adequate number of schools;

states who are to direct the schools; what is to be taught in them; how the necessary funds are to be raised; and establishes a general system of superintendence and control, centering in the person of the minister of public instruction. It also decrees that it shall be compulsory on the parent, master, guardian, &c. to have every child educated, and points out the means by which this clause shall be enforced.

The following are among the most striking provisions of the law.

"COMPULSORY EDUCATION.

"Parents or guardians are bound to send their children or wards to the public school; or to provide in some other manner that they receive a competent education.

"Parents, or those on whom children are dependent, (and under this head are comprehended masters and manufacturers who have children as servants or apprentices, at an age when they should go to school,) shall be bound to give them a suitable education, from their seventh year to their fourteenth inclusive. The schoolmaster shall judge whether a child gives proof of sufficient precocity to enter the school before that age, and the school committee shall grant an authority for its admission. A child who shall have gone through the whole course of elementary instruction before the age of fourteen cannot be taken away from school by its parents without the permission of the committee, nor till after the members of the committee charged with the inspection of the school shall have proceeded to an examination of the

pupil, which must be fully satisfactory as to morals and health. It is desirable that children who have quitted school, and have been confirmed and admitted to the communion, should attend the catechising on Sundays at church for at least a year. This custom, which was formerly general, must be re-established wherever it has fallen into disuse.

"Parents and masters who do not send their children, or those entrusted to their care, to a public school, must point out to the municipal authorities or school-committees, whenever they are required, what means they provide for the education of such children.

"Every year after Easter or Michaelmas, the committees and the municipal authorities shall make an inquiry concerning all the families lying within their jurisdiction who have notoriously not provided for their children that private education which they are bound to give them in default of public education. For this purpose they shall make a census of all the children of age to go to school. The baptismal registers, and those of the civil authorities, shall be open to them at the beginning of every year, and the police must afford them every possible facility and assistance.

"It is recognised as a principle, that in the country every child shall be sent to the school of the parish, village, or school-association to which its parents belong. If the parents wish to send their children to any other school, or to give them a private education, they must declare the same to the school-committee, and the permission cannot be refused them;

provided always that they pay the charges imposed on them, for the support of the school to which they would naturally belong.

"Parents and masters are bound to see that the children under their care regularly follow the school courses for the time prescribed by law. On the other hand, masters shall keep lists of attendance, according to a prescribed formula, which must be submitted to the school-committee every fortnight.

"In order to facilitate to parents the execution of this law, and at the same time not to deprive them entirely of the assistance which their children might afford them in their labours, the hours of lessons in the elementary schools shall be arranged in such a manner as to leave the children several hours daily for domestic work.

"Schoolmasters are forbidden, under very heavy penalties, to employ their scholars in the work of their own household.

"All schools shall be shut on Sundays. The afternoons, between divine service and the catechism, may be devoted to gymnastic exercises.

"Care is everywhere to be taken to furnish necessitous parents with the means of sending their children to school, by providing them with the things necessary for their instruction, or with such clothes as they stand in need of.

"It is to be hoped that these facilities and helps, the moral and religious influence of the clergy, the wise counsels of members of the school-committees and of the municipal authorities, will gradually lead the people to appreciate the benefits of a good elementary

education, and will spread among the young that wish and thirst for knowledge, which will lead them to seek every means of acquiring it.

"If, however, parents and masters neglect sending their children punctually to school, the clergymen must first explain to them the heavy responsibility which rests upon them; after that, the school-committee must summon them and address severe remonstrances to them. No excuse whatever shall be deemed valid (exclusive of the proof that the education of the child is otherwise provided for) except certificates of illness signed by the medical man or the clergyman; the absence of the parents or masters which had occasioned that of the children; or, lastly, the want of the necessary clothing, funds for providing which had not been forthcoming.

"If these remonstrances are not sufficient, coercive measures are then to be resorted to against the parents, guardians, or masters. The children are to be taken to school by an officer of the police, or the parents to be sentenced to graduated punishments or fines; and in case they are unable to pay, to imprisonment, or labour for the benefit of the parish. These punishments may be successively increased, but are never to exceed the maximum of punishment of correctional police.

"The fines to be awarded by the school-committee, to be collected, if necessary, by the aid of the police, and paid into the funds of the committee. The execution of the other punishments rests with the police.

"The parents who shall have incurred such sentences may, on the request of the school-committees, and as an augmentation of punishment, be deprived

of all participation in the public funds for the relief of the poor.

"They shall be equally incapable of taking any part in the administration of the parish, or of holding any office connected with the church or school.

"If all these punishments are ineffectual, a guardian shall be appointed especially to watch over the education of the children, or in case they are wards, a co-guardian.

"The protestant or catholic pastors are to judge for themselves how far to use their influence, according to the circumstances of the case. But they are earnestly to endeavour, especially in their sermons at the opening of schools, to persuade parents to give great attention to the education of their children, and to send them regularly to school; they may even make allusion to any striking instances of neglect of these duties. Lastly, they shall admit no children to the conferences preparatory to confirmation and communion, who do not present certificates, attesting that they have completed their time at school; or that they are still in punctual attendance upon it; or that they are receiving or have received a private education."—*Extracts from Prussian Regulations in M. Cousin's Report.—Austen's translation*, pp. 25—30.

Mons. Cousin remarks as follows on the way in which the law was carried into effect:—"The greatest difficulty was to obtain from the new provinces, and particularly those on the Rhine, so recently annexed to the monarchy, the execution of that article of the law which imposes on parents, under severe penalties, the obligation of sending their children to school. The ministry had the wisdom to

suspend this part of the law in these provinces, and to labour to bring about the same results by zeal and persuasion. When the taste for instruction had been thus gradually diffused, and the population of these provinces seemed sufficiently prepared for such a measure, the law was rendered obligatory. This took place in 1825, and from that moment it has been steadily and rigidly enforced. I have now before me an order of the regency of Kolu, dated 1827, by which the cabinet order of the 14th of May 1825, on the obligation of attending school, is enforced. I have a similar order of the regency of Aächen (Aix la Chapelle), dated March 7, 1826, and another of that of Dusseldorf of the 20th of July of the same year. The law has everywhere been carried into effect, but with a judicious mixture of gentleness and severity: thus in 1826, which was a remarkably bad year, the ministry even saw fit to moderate the zeal of the local administrations, and to enjoin, not to compel the parishes to contribute to the repairs and improvements of schools, but first to have recourse to means of persuasion. This circular is dated the 12th of May 1826."—*Austen's Cousin,* pp. 110 and 111.

SCHOOL FUNDS; HOW RAISED AND APPLIED.

Every small district, or *parish*, as we must say, for want of a better term, is required to support an elementary or *primary* school. If the parish should be unable at any time, from extreme poverty, to support a school, then it is directed that assistance be furnished from the funds of the province to which it belongs. Every town has to support a school for a superior

course of instruction, called a secondary, middle, or *burgher* school. The Universities or *Gymnasia* are supported principally by the state, as are also the Normal schools.

In all cases, however, (excepting those of extreme poverty,) the parent is called upon to pay a part of the cost of his child's education. In the primary schools (which contain nineteen-twentieths of all the children at school) the charge is about ten-pence per month, or two-pence halfpenny a week.

The law requires that the following provisions should be made for education:—

"1. A suitable income for schoolmasters and mistresses, and a certain provision for them after they are past service.

"2. A building for the purposes of teaching and of exercises, properly laid out, kept in repair and warmed.

"3. Furniture, books, pictures, instruments, and all things necessary for the lessons and exercises.

"4. Pecuniary assistance for the necessitous scholars.

"The conditions which are essential in a school-house, and must be rigidly enforced, are, a healthy situation, rooms of a sufficient size, well-boarded, well-aired, and kept with the greatest neatness; and whenever it is possible, a good lodging for the master. In schools which have several masters, one at least is, if possible, to lodge in the school-house. The provincial consistories shall cause plans to be drawn up of school-houses of different sizes, for villages and small towns, with an approximating estimate of the cost of building, and of the necessary furniture, in order that

there may be some fixed standard for new buildings and for the greater repairs.

"Every school in a village or small town shall have a garden, cultivated according to the nature of the country, either as kitchen-garden, orchard, nursery-garden, or laid out for raising bees; and this garden shall be made available for the instruction of the scholars.

"Wherever the nature of the spot will admit, there shall be a gravelled plain or court in front of the school for the children's exercises.

"The materials necessary for instruction consist, above all, in a sufficient collection of books for the use of the master, and as many as possible for the use of the scholars.

"There shall be, according to the degree of every school, a collection of maps and geographical instruments, models for drawing, writing, music, &c.; the instruments and collections necessary for studying mathematics and natural history; lastly, according to the extent of the system of instruction, there shall be the apparatus necessary for gymnastic exercises, and the tools and implements suited to the teaching of the mechanical arts or manufactures, in the schools into which that branch of knowledge is introduced. The provincial consistories shall fix the minimum of the moveables required for the inferior schools.

"Every parish, however small, is bound to have an elementary school, complete or incomplete; that is to say, accomplishing the whole scheme of instruction prescribed by the law, or at least the most indispensable parts of the scheme.

"Every town, containing a population of at least

1,500 inhabitants, is bound to have at least one burgher or middle school, or more, according to its population.

"Jewish residents in towns may establish schools at their own expense, on condition that they be organised, superintended, and administered by them conformably with the present law. They may equally send their children to other schools, but they are not permitted to have any share in the management of those schools.

"The first care should be to furnish the country with the needful elementary schools. Wherever there exist incomplete schools, they must be improved, and must be changed as quickly as possible into complete elementary schools; this must invariably take place when a school has, or is in a condition to have, two masters. In order that all country places may have sufficient elementary schools within their reach, the inhabitants of each rural parish shall form an association for country schools, under the direction of the public authorities. This association is to consist, first, of all the landed proprietors without any distinction, whether they have or have not children; secondly, of all householders domiciliated in the parish, even if they be not landowners.

"Each village, including the neighbouring farms, may form an association of this kind of itself. The same applies to a combination of a number of isolated farm-houses.

"Every village ought to have its school; but in certain cases, and as exceptions to the general rule, several villages may unite together into one school association, under the following conditions :—

"1. The absolute impossibility for a parish to furnish the means of an elementary school of itself.

"2. The villages which associate, must be so near that the children can punctually attend the common school. The distance allowed shall not exceed half a mile (2¼ miles English) in flat country, and a quarter of a mile in hilly country.

"3. No such combination can be formed among villages separated by marshes or rivers, which would render attendance on school difficult, or even impracticable, at certain seasons of the year.

"4. The number of children collected must not be too great. More may be admitted if there are means of maintaining two masters, and if the building is large enough; but in that case the villages would be very nearly able to support each its own school, which is always preferable.

"If a village from its extent and population, or from difference in the religious persuasions of the inhabitants, had already two schools, they shall on no account be united, especially if they be of different confessions of faith. On the contrary, separate schools shall be established wherever circumstances permit.

"Difference of religion ought not, however, to be an obstacle to the formation of an association for a country school; but in forming such an association of catholics and protestants, regard must be had to the numerical proportion of the inhabitants of each communion. If it be possible, there shall, in this case, conjointly with the head master professing the religion of the majority, be a second master professing that of the minority.

"Jews scattered about the country may enjoy all

the advantages of the school associations, but must not take part in their management. They must provide for the religious education of their children themselves.

"Wherever the union of two schools of different communions be judged expedient, it must take place by common agreement between the two parties. Moreover, in case of a union of this kind, or of the establishment of schools for various sects, provision must be made that each of these sects have within reach all that may be necessary for the religious education of the scholars belonging to it. And in order that no sect may have anything to fear, and that all it brings into the common fund may be secured to it, an authentic document shall be drawn up every year, setting forth the respective rights of each, and the particular terms of the association. If a union cannot be effected, or if it is found impracticable to form a school common to both religions, the authorities shall interfere, and take the measures best suited to the necessities and circumstances of the place."—*Austen's Cousin*, pp. 33—40.

COURSES OF INSTRUCTION.

"The elementary schools (Elementarschulen) have for their object the regular development of the faculties of man, by more or less extending instruction in the branches of knowledge indispensable to the lower classes, both in town and country.

"The burgher schools (Bürgherschulen Stadtschulen) bring the child to that point at which peculiar aptitude for classical studies, properly so called, or for some particular profession, may manifest itself.

"The gymnasia carry on education to the point at which boys, after having received a classical and liberal culture, enter on a course of practical studies in ordinary life, or scientific, superior, and special or professional studies at the universities.

"Establishments for girls must be as much as possible formed separately, corresponding as to their course of instruction with the elementary, or with the burgher schools. The general principles of instruction and discipline laid down for boys' schools are the same for girls, with modifications appropriate to their sex.

"Primary instruction shall have for its aim to develope the faculties of the soul, the reason, the senses, and the bodily strength. It shall comprehend religion and morals; the knowledge of size and numbers, of nature and man; corporeal exercises, singing, and lastly, imitation of forms by drawing and writing.

"In every school for girls, without exception, works peculiar to their sex shall be taught.

"Gymnastics shall be considered as a necessary part of a complete system of education, and shall be taught by simple rules favourable to the promotion of the health and bodily strength of children.

"Every complete elementary school necessarily comprehends the following subjects:—

"1. Religious instruction, as a means of forming the moral character of children according to the positive truths of Christianity.

"2. The German language; and in provinces where a foreign language is spoken, the language of the country in addition to the German.

"3. The elements of geometry, together with the general principles of drawing.

"4. Calculation and practical arithmetic.

"5. The elements of physics, geography, general history, and especially the history of Prussia.

"6. Care must be taken to introduce and combine these branches of knowledge with the reading and writing lessons as much as possible, independently of the instruction which shall be given on those subjects specially. Singing, with a view to improve the voices of the children, to elevate their hearts and minds, to perfect and ennoble the popular songs, and church music, or psalmody.

"7. Writing and gymnastic exercises, which fortify all the senses, and especially that of sight.

"8. The simplest manual labours, and some instructions in husbandry, according to the agriculture of the respective parts of the country.

"The instructions in religion, reading, writing, arithmetic, and singing, are strictly indispensable in every school. No school shall be considered as a complete elementary school, unless it fulfil the whole scheme of instruction just marked out.

"Every burgher school shall afford instruction on the following heads:—

"1. Religion and morals.

"2. The German language, and the language of the country in the provinces not German; reading, composition, exercises in style, study of the national classics. In all the German part of the country, the modern foreign languages are an accessory branch of study.

"3. Latin is taught to all the children, within certain limits, as a means of exercising their faculties and their judgments, whether they be or be not to enter the higher schools.

"4. The elements of mathematics, and especially a thorough course of practical arithmetic.

"5. Physical science, as far as is sufficient to explain the most remarkable phenomena of nature.

"6. Geography and history combined, in order to give some knowledge of the earth, of the general history of the world, of the people who inhabit it, and the empires into which it is divided. Prussia, its history, laws, and constitution, shall form the subject of a special study.

"7. The principles of drawing shall be taught to all, concurrently with the lessons in physics, natural history, and geometry.

"8. Writing must be carefully attended to, and the hand trained to write distinctly and neatly.

"9. The singing lessons shall be attended by all the pupils, not only with a view to form them to that art, but to qualify them to assist in the services of the church with propriety and solemnity, by singing the psalms or choral music with correctness and judgment.

"10. Gymnastic exercises, adapted to the age and strength of the scholars."—*Austen's Cousin*, pp. 51—58.

RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION.

The following are laid down as the regulations to be observed. Though not perfect, they breathe an unusually liberal spirit:—

"Difference of religion in Christian schools necessarily produces some differences in the religious instruction. This instruction shall always be adapted to the spirit and the dogmas of the church to which the school belongs. But as, in every school of a Christian

state, the dominant spirit common to all modes of faith ought to be piety, and a profound reverence for God, every school may receive children of another communion. Masters and inspectors must most carefully avoid every kind of constraint or annoyance to the children on account of their particular creed. No school shall be made abusively instrumental to any views of proselytism; and the children of a persuasion different from that of the school, shall not be obliged, against the will of their parents or their own, to attend the religious instruction or exercises in it. Private masters of their own creed shall be charged with their religious instruction; and in any place where it would be impossible to have as many masters as there are forms of belief, parents must the more sedulously perform those duties themselves, if they do not wish their children to follow the religious instructions given in the school.

"Christian schools may admit children of the Jewish persuasion on precisely the same terms as children of all other religions; but Jewish schools may not receive any child of Christian parents."—*Austen's Cousin*, p. 52.

PLANS OF INSTRUCTION.—Mons. Cousin gives us but little information under this head. The only remark from which much can be gleaned is a negative one, to the effect that the monitorial system of Bell and Lancaster in use in England is not to be found in Prussia; and that this system is not thought highly of in Prussia; the general opinion there being that its only recommendation is its cheapness.

We are not going at present to discuss the merits of the monitorial plan of teaching; but we will observe,

that by a short process of calculation, for which Mons. Cousin himself furnishes the data, we find that if the Prussian teachers do not really avail themselves of the assistance of their scholars, each teacher is charged with the direct instruction of not less than 71 children! For there are not more than 28,000 teachers, including masters, mistresses, and assistants: and 2,000,000 children divided among 28,000 teachers gives an average of 71 to each. How it is possible for one person effectively to teach a class of 71 children, differing in age, talent, and acquirements, we cannot divine.

Discipline.—The discipline appears to be comparatively mild. We are, however, sorry to perceive that the law negatively sanctions certain kinds of corporal punishment:

"The paternal attachment of the masters, their affectionate kindness towards all their pupils, will be the most powerful means of preserving them from immoral influences, and inclining them to virtue.

"No kind of punishment which has a tendency to weaken the sentiment of honour must, on any pretence, be inflicted; corporal punishments, in case they be necessary, must be devoid of cruelty, and on no account injurious either to modesty or to health.

"Incorrigible scholars, or those whose example or influence might be pernicious to their school-fellows, after all the resources of parental authority joined to that of the masters shall have been exhausted, shall be expelled, in compliance with the judgment of the school committees."

Teachers.—The life of the Prussian system of education is its provision for a constant supply of good efficient teachers.

We have mentioned that there are in all 33 Normal schools in Prussia, and that it is stated that they together send out about 750 young men every year qualified to fill the office of schoolmaster. The entire number of students in the 33 schools is about 2,000. The age at which they generally enter is seventeen or eighteen; and the time of their stay in the schools varies from two to three years.

Admission into a Normal school appears to be an object of ambition to great numbers of young men; for the applicants are far more numerous than the vacancies to be filled. Nevertheless, the course of study and practice is very laborious; and the style of living simplicity itself.

Every candidate for admission is subjected to a strict examination as to his habits and acquirements; the first being justly considered of far greater importance than the latter. The following is extracted from the Report of the Director of the Normal school at Potsdam, the model school for the whole of Prussia.

"The Normal school is by no means designed for those who are unfit for any business, and think, if they can read and write, they are capable of becoming schoolmasters. This notion is so deeply rooted, that you hear fathers declare with all the simplicity in the world, 'My son is too delicate to learn a business;' or 'I don't know what to make of my son, but I think of getting him into the Normal school.' We reply to such, that the pupils of the Normal school must, on the contrary, be sound both in body and mind, and able to brave the toils and troubles of a career as laborious as it is honourable.

"Much neglect unfortunately still exists on a sub-

ject which is of the highest importance, — the methodical preparation of the young men for the calling which it is desired that they should embrace.

"A false direction is often given to their preliminary studies. A young man is believed to be well prepared for the Normal school, if he have passed the limits of elementary instruction, and if he have acquired a greater mass of knowledge than other pupils.

"It frequently happens, however, that candidates who come strongly recommended from school, pass the examination without credit, or are even rejected.

"The most immediate and the most important aim of all instruction, is to train up and complete the man, to ennoble his heart and character, to awaken the energies of his soul, and to render him not only disposed, but able to fulfil his duties. In this view alone can knowledge and talents profit a man; otherwise, instruction, working upon sterile memory and talents purely mechanical, can be of no high utility. In order that the teacher, and particularly the master of the primary school, may make his pupils virtuous and enlightened men, it is necessary he should be so himself. Thus, that the education of a Normal school essentially practical may completely succeed, the young candidate must possess nobleness and purity of character in the highest possible degree, the love of the true and the beautiful, an active and penetrating mind, the utmost precision and clearness in narration and style.

"Such above all things are the qualities we require of young men. If they have reached this state of moral and intellectual advancement, by the study of history, mathematics, &c. and if they have acquired

additional knowledge in these different branches, we cannot but give them applause; but, we frankly repeat, we dispense with all these acquirements, provided they possess that *formal instruction* of which we have just spoken, since it is very easy for them to obtain in the Normal school that *material instruction* in which they are deficient."—*Austen's Cousin*, p. 252.

The object of the first part of the course of instruction in the Normal school, is to perfect the student in the matter taught in the primary schools. After a time the student is introduced to the practice school,—that is to say, to a school for children attached to the Normal school, in which the young men learn the art of teaching.

After witnessing for a time the manner in which the lessons are given, the student is allowed to make trial of his own powers of teaching. The director stands by, and when the lesson is over, points out to the youthful teacher the errors he may have made, and while his explanations are fresh in the mind of the young man, takes a class himself and teaches it before him.

Thus is the student introduced by degrees to the difficult art of teaching: an art which in this country is treated with the greatest neglect; indeed, is scarcely recognised as having a distinct existence; it being generally assumed that, as a matter of course, a man has the power of communicating to others all the knowledge he himself may possess.

Only part of the student's time is however employed in acquiring the practice and principles of teaching. His education in other departments, physical, moral and mental, is going forward at the same time.

When at length the time comes for his leaving the Normal school, he undergoes another careful examination; and a testimonial is drawn up, stating the degree of proficiency he may have acquired. He is then placed in a situation as schoolmaster. But if it appears upon trial that he is not yet master of his profession, he goes back again to the Normal school. The same takes place when, after conducting a small village school with credit and success, the young man becomes desirous of qualifying himself for a higher situation.

From time to time meetings are held of the schoolmasters of the same district: these meetings afford opportunities of friendly intercourse, of discussing different plans of teaching, and of adding to each member's store of knowledge.

Removed from all danger of that angry competition in which two men are struggling for a livelihood which is sufficient only for one,—under no nervous anxiety lest they and their families should one day sink into irremediable poverty,—galled by no feeling of injustice in the preferment of inferior merit,—there can be little of that jealousy and heart-burning which too often appears among persons of the same pursuit in life; and which in the profession of schoolmaster, is especially to be lamented, since the existence of such feelings is altogether inconsistent with that moral influence which the schoolmaster ought to possess over his own pupils, and the high degree of respect with which he ought to be regarded by their parents.

The following are the regulations of one of the meetings of schoolmasters, as drawn up by the Superintendent.

"From the 1st of May to the end of August the meetings are held once a week, on Wednesday afternoon,* from two to six o'clock; from the 1st of September to the end of October, once a fortnight, from two to five; from the 1st of November to the end of February, once a month, from two to five, after the moon's first quarter; and from the 1st of March to the end of April, once a fortnight.

"The chief subject of discussion at these meetings is *method*. The best, it is true, must ever reside in the accuracy of judgment, the zeal and activity of the master, which alone can give interest and life to his school. Nevertheless, it is desirable that similarity of method should as far as possible prevail throughout a district; order and regularity in teaching must be promoted by it. The masters shall examine, therefore, what is the best known method for teaching reading, arithmetic, and singing; and what the best elementary books. They shall pass in review all the new books which have appeared on any of the branches of instruction: Dr. Harnisch's method of reading, Pestalozzi's elements of arithmetic, or those of Kawersu, Mucke, Schellenberg, Fischer, Rennschmidt, and others, or Scholz' excellent work on arithmetic. They will inquire whether Rothweil's or Natorp's methods of teaching singing are satisfactory? Which is preferable for singing, music written in cipher or with notes? What are the best pieces to give pupils? What is the best reading book for the second class of country schools? And among many good works, is

* Wednesday afternoon is a holiday in Germany, as is Thursday in France.

Wilmsen's *Children's Friend* to be preferred, or Dr. Harnisch's *Second Reading Book?*

"Religious instruction, as the foundation of all popular education, shall form the first object of the deliberations of the conference. Ought the catechetical method to be discontinued as it has been of late years? What are the works necessary to the master, besides the Bible and Luther's Catechism? Does he find sufficient directions in Hoffman, Gëisser, Handel, Hänel and Kohlrausch? In consequence of the recent extension of the instruction given in our village schools, the conference shall discuss how far the elements of geography and drawing may be expediently pursued; within what limits the lessons in geography, history, and the national sciences are to be circumscribed, and whether these additions are likely to be really useful, or only a barren work of memory.

"Discipline is one of the prime conditions of the success of a school; and here the question presents itself as to the employment of rewards and punishments. Experience has proved that this is the part of education the most difficult to handle. Special attention must be paid to it and all difficulties will be overcome by those who, filled with the spirit of the gospel, are convinced they owe to their pupils whatever is enjoined by a religious love and a boundless devotion to the holy office they hold.

"It is no less the object of these conferences to furnish the masters with an opportunity of gaining new lights and of extending their own knowledge. Questions in grammar, in the German tongue, in arithmetic, &c. will therefore always form part of the business of the meeting; as likewise the reading of

works on education, and other books which are likely to furnish matter useful to schoolmasters; the practice of singing, and reciprocal communication of the experience of each.

"Among the works on education particularly recommended, they will have the journals on primary instruction published in Prussia and throughout Germany.

"The pastors charged with the inspection of the conferences may propose questions, which shall be treated in writing, and afterwards discussed at the conference.

"A report shall be made of all the meetings."

Austen's Cousin, pp. 201, 2, 3.

A first and essential step towards increasing the authority and influence of the schoolmaster, was to raise the office in public estimation. This has been accomplished by connecting it with the state. The schoolmaster's salary is paid out of the public purse; a provision too is made for his old age, or for the maintenance of his family, should he be cut off while still young. In ceasing to be the recipient of the pence and shillings of his scholars, the instructor rises in their respect, and attains a position in which he can acquire a moral influence superior in its effects to any system of artificial rewards and punishments that ingenuity can devise.

There is a regular gradation from the modest village schoolmaster, humble but honoured in his own little sphere, to the minister of state for the department of public instruction; and merit, not favour or seniority, is the guide, or at least the professed guide, of promotion.

"Able schoolmasters, who are faithful in their vocation and unremitting in self-improvement, shall be encouraged by promotion to places of a higher class, and even on particular occasions by extraordinary rewards. With a view to preserve the utmost regularity possible in the advancement of the numerous class of teachers, and to order so that no superior teacher may be below one who is inferior to him, the provincial consistories shall prepare tables of the masterships of town and country schools, classed according to their revenues, and shall take care that, in general, promotions are made according to these tables.

"Length of service alone shall not constitute a claim, nor establish an absolute right to advancement; but a teacher who petitions to be removed to a situation superior to that for which he has received a certificate, in whatever school he may be, shall undergo a new examination.

"At the end of each year, the departmental authorities shall remit to government a list of all the schoolmasters recently appointed or promoted in the department, with a statement of the income of their situations; and these authorities shall not be held excusable if they suffer individual merit to be unemployed or unrewarded, or the least service to pass unnoticed."—*Austen's Cousin*, pp. 77 and 78.

NORMAL SCHOOLS.

The following extracts from the rules and order of proceeding in three of the Normal schools will give an insight into their economy and general management. The first of these schools is on a very small scale, and is intended for students of the humblest rank.

" *Small Primary Normal Schools of Lastadie, near Stettin.*

" 1. This school is specially designed for poor young men who intend to become country schoolmasters, and who may, in case of need, gain a part of their subsistence by the labour of their own hands.

" 2. Nothing is taught here but those things necessary for small and poor country parishes, which require schoolmasters who are Christians and useful men, and can afford them but a very slender recompense for their toils.

" 3. This school is intended to be a *Christian school*, founded in the spirit of the Gospel. It aspires only to resemble a village household of the simplest kind, and to unite all its members into one family. To this end, all the pupils inhabit the same house, and eat at the same table with the masters.

" 4. The young men who will be admitted in preference, are such as are born and bred in the country, who know the elements of what ought to be taught in a good country school, who have a straightforward understanding, and a kindly cheerful temper. If withal they know any handicraft or understand gardening, they will find opportunities for practice and improvement in it in odd hours.

" 5. The school of Lastadie neither can nor will enter into any competition with the great Normal schools completely organized; on the contrary, it will strive always to keep itself within the narrow limits assigned to it.

" 6. The utmost simplicity ought to prevail in all the habits of the school, and, if possible, manual labour

should be combined with those studies which are the main object, and which ought to occupy the greater portion of the time.

"7. The course of instruction is designed to teach the young people to reflect, and by exercising them in reading, writing, arithmetic, and singing, to put it in their power to instruct themselves, and to form their own minds. For the humblest peasant ought to be taught to think; but to enlighten him, to make him a rational and intelligent being, does not mean to make him learned. 'God willeth that all men be enlightened, and that they come to the knowledge of the truth.'

"8. The instruction ought to have a direct connexion with the vocation of the students, and to include only the most essential part of the instruction given in the great Normal schools.

"9. The objects of instruction are, religion, the German language, reading, writing, arithmetic, and singing. To these are joined the first elements of geometry, easy lessons in natural history, narratives drawn from the national history, (particularly that of Pomerania,) and geographical descriptions. The principal object and the foundation of all education is religion, as learned from history and from the Bible. The principal books are the Bible, the Psalter, and the Catechism. The school of Lastadie will also strive to excite and cherish in its pupils a love of nature, and to that end will cultivate a taste for gardening and planting.

"10. In treating of all these subjects the pupils must be trained to speak in pure and accurate

language; for, after the knowledge of religion and of nature, there is nothing of which the children of peasants so much stand in need, as to learn to express what they know with simplicity, truth, and accuracy.

" 11. The students know enough when they can speak, read, and write well; when they can produce a good composition in the German tongue; when they can calculate with facility and with reflection, and when they sing well; they know enough when they are thoroughly versed in the Bible, when they possess the most essential notions of the system of that universe which they have before their eyes, of that nature in the midst of which they live; they have attained much when they are Christian, rational, virtuous men.

" 12. The period of study is fixed at two years. The first year the pupils learn what they are hereafter to teach to others; besides which they assist at the lessons the masters give to the children of the school annexed to this small Normal school. In the second year the future teacher appears more distinctly, and from that time everything is more and more applied to practice. They continue the whole year to practise teaching, and at the end they receive a set of rules, short and easy to understand, for the management of a school of poor country children.

" 13. To the school of Lastadie is joined a school of poor children, in which the young men have an opportunity of going over what they have learned, by teaching it to others, and of exercising themselves in tuition according to a fixed plan. This school consists of a single class, in order that the students may

see how a good school for poor children should be composed and conducted, and how all the children may be kept employed at once.

"14. The number of pupils is fixed at twelve. The pecuniary assistance they receive will depend upon circumstances. The instruction is gratuitous. Six pupils inhabit each room. The master lives on the same floor. They take their simple but wholesome meals together. Servants are not wanted; pupils do the work of the house."

Austen's Cousin, p. 171 to 174.

The following is from the Report of the Directors of a Catholic Normal school at Brühl. The school is in a delightful situation on the banks of the Rhine. The Report very properly gives a description of the *locale* of the school:—an exception to the general rule, which is to overlook altogether the *moral* effect of beautiful scenery. This, in our opinion, is a point which ought always to be borne in mind in choosing the site of a school-house, or the abode of any numerous body of children or adults. The effect of a fine landscape in cultivating the taste, allaying the passions, and creating a cheerful and happy temper, is far from inconsiderable; to say nothing of the immediate pleasure it affords. In fact, we too often strive to become acquainted with the mere comments on nature, to the neglect of nature herself. The language of the Report is somewhat florid; but let that pass.

"The town of Brühl stands in a beautiful plain on the left bank of the Rhine, two leagues from Köln, three from Bourn, and a short league from the river. It is surrounded by fertile fields and picturesque

villages. Directly before it majestically rises the ancient Colonia, with its numerous towers and steeples, and its colossal cathedral: it bounds the view on that side. On the right the *Liebengebirge* traces its gigantic outlines on the blue distance, and on that side presents to the eye a picture of grandeur and repose. From some neighbouring heights the lover of natural beauty looks down with admiration on the plains which lie outspread before him, and the silvery lustre of the majestic Rhine, which, in its ample windings, rolls peacefully along, as if it delighted to linger in these peaceful regions; while two long chains of hills seem to hold this magnificent plain in their embrace. One of these chains stretches along the left bank of the Rhine to the Eifel mountains, and is for that reason called the *Vorgebirge* (fore or introductory range); at the foot of this chain is Brühl. The summit is clothed with the forest of Vill, and the undulating sides are dotted with country-houses and pretty villages, the houses of which are half-hidden among fruit-trees. At the blossoming season these villages present the most delightful aspect, and help to compose a picture of charming variety."

* * * * *

"The house is built in a grand style, with three stories, and in a quadrangular form. The entrance is to the north, and leads by a small fore court, on the one side into the convent, on the other into the church, which is handsome, light, and lofty. The high altar, of artificial marble, and the organ, are much admired: on the south side are two wings, which give the buildings a handsome and palace-like appearance. From the very entrance the cloisters are wide

with lofty vaulted roofs, cheerful and well lighted: they run quite round the building, as do the corridors over them in the first and second stories. On the ground-floor we have four rooms or halls for study, and a large and very light dining-room, which serves also for our public meetings, for study, and for prayer: beside it are two school-rooms, and two rooms for the steward, with kitchen, offices, and servants' hall, in the basement story, where the porter has also his kitchen and two rooms. The establishment has a pump, abundantly supplied with fine water; near the kitchen, a rivulet which runs under the two wings is of great importance for purposes of cleanliness."

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"The outside of the building is as agreeable as the inside is convenient; it is situated on the prettiest side of the town, and has no communication with any other building except the palace, with which it is connected by a covered-way and by the old orangery. It has a magnificent country, a large kitchen-garden, a commodious court, and two flower-gardens."

* * * * *

"The number of students is fixed at 100; at this moment there are 92. The object of the establishment is to train schoolmasters for the Catholic parishes of the four regencies of Coblentz, Cöln, Aachen (Aix-la-Chapelle), and Düsseldorf."

* * * * *

"According to its regulations, the school is not only authorised, but obliged, at the end of the first year, to send away the pupils who are adjudged incapable of attaining the requisite excellence. At the time of the last parting examination, the school had been obliged

to exercise this power in the case of eight pupils, which reduced their number to 92."

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"It is our duty to make the greatest possible use of the day-light, as being more healthful, more cheerful, and more perfect than lamp-light, and costing nothing. In our situation it would be unpardonable to turn night into day. I make it a great point too, that the young men should get the habit of rising early, so that in the evening they may lay aside all anxiety and all labour, and give themselves up to the enjoyment of tranquil and refreshing sleep. In summer, therefore, we rise at four, and even earlier when the days are longest; in winter at six, in spring and autumn at five. In summer, I and my pupils go to bed at nine or half-past, in spring and winter at ten. The pupils ring the *réveil* by turns; a quarter of an hour after, the bell rings again, and all assemble in the dining-hall, where the morning prayer is said; then they all follow me to the church, where I perform the service of the holy mass. One of the students assists in the service, the others sing the responses: this religious act, for which we use the prayer-book and psalter of Bishop von Hommer, is sometimes mingled with singing, but rarely, because singing very early in the morning is said to be injurious to the voice and chest. All is terminated in an hour; and the pupils, after having thus sanctified the first hour of morning, return to the house, make their beds, breakfast, and then prepare for lessons, which begin at seven or eight, according to the season. In establishing this rule, I had some fears at first that rising so early and going directly into a cold church in the depth of winter might be injurious to their health;

but I am always there before them, and I have never suffered. It may be said that I am more warmly clothed than the young men; but then they are young, their blood is warmer than mine, and that restores the balance.

"Moreover, it cannot but be advantageous to them to harden themselves; while habits of indulgence and delicacy would be extremely unfavourable to them in their profession. On the Sundays and festivals of the church I say mass to the students at half-past eight in the morning: they sing a German mass for four voices, or simple chants or hymns; and, on high festivals, a Latin mass. During the last year, the pupils of the first class have several times executed some easy masses extremely well: but, generally speaking, I am not perfectly satisfied with our church music: not that our pupils and masters do not do their best, but we have not a suitable supply of church music." * * * * *

"To let children grow perverse and wayward in their infancy through weak tenderness and indulgence, and then to reprove and chastise them with harshness when their habits are formed, cannot be other than a false system: for this reason we always begin by reading the rules and disciplinary laws of the house, so that the pupils may distinctly know what they have to do; we then take care that these laws are strictly enforced. The masters, on their side, are careful to show the most punctual obedience to all their duties. We afterwards read portions of the rules, according to circumstances, and to the demand for any particular part; thus the discipline is strengthened and facilitated. The highest punishment is expulsion, and last year we

were obliged to resort to this twice; in all cases we try to proportion the punishment to the fault, so as to conduce to the amendment of the culprit and the good of all. For instance, if one of the pupils lies in bed, he is deprived of his portion of meat at dinner; and for four days, a week, or a fortnight, as it may be, he is obliged to declare his presence when we meet in the morning. Being kept at home on holidays, ringing the bell, fetching water, &c. are the only corporal punishments for faults of indolence or infractions of order. Faults of impatience or carelessness, of insincerity or mischievousness, of coarseness or any sort of incivility, offences against decency or good manners, are punished by notes in the inspection-book, which the culprit himself is obliged to sign. As to the conduct of the students when out of the house, the authorities and inhabitants of the whole neighbourhood unanimously bear witness that the presence of these young men is in no way perceived. Of this I could cite several instances, did I not fear prolonging this Report. Last year the students of the higher class were dissatisfied with the steward, and presented a petition numerously signed, in which they enumerated the causes of their complaint, and asked to have him removed. I gave the petition to him, that he might answer the charges; and after he had made his defence, I suffered accusers and accused to plead their cause at the time of one of the religious lessons. The steward was not irreproachable, his fault was indeed evident enough; on the other hand, the complaint was exaggerated, invidious, inexact, and inconsiderate; for several had signed without reading; others had signed because such or such a point seemed to them just; others again had

shown themselves extremely active in collecting signatures, and had reproached those who had refused to sign. The affair being duly and circumstantially stated, the steward had his share of the reprimand, and was deeply affected by it; others were moved to tears; and the offenders, when the unbecoming, inconsiderate, and even criminal points of their conduct were explained to them, acknowledged their injustice, and promised never to act in the like manner again.

"Order and discipline, instruction and prayer, are thus regarded and employed as so many means, general and particular, for cultivating the morals of the pupils; and the undersigned, during the short time he has had the care of the institution, has had the satisfaction of seeing many who entered it with bad and distressing habits, leave it metamorphosed and renewed. Sedateness and modesty have been substituted for giddiness; the spirit of temperance for craving after sensual delights; and those who came to seek but ordinary bread, have acquired a taste for purer and higher food. It is hardly possible that among so many a vicious one should not occasionally creep in; and last year, among the new-comers, was a cunning and accomplished thief, whose depredations filled the establishment with dissatisfaction and alarm. It was difficult to find him out, but falsehood and perversity betray themselves in the end. Heavy suspicions were accumulated during the year on the head of the criminal; and though there were not positive proofs, he could not so escape our vigilance as not to leave us in possession of a moral certainty against him. He was expelled at the examination of last year; nevertheless, as there was no legal proof, his name was not stigma-

tized by publicity, and the higher authorities will readily excuse my not mentioning it here, and will be satisfied with the assurance that no misfortune of the kind has since occurred."

Austen's Cousin, pp. 208—220.

Our last extract, relating to the Prussian Normal schools, will be taken from the Report of the Director of the great Normal school at Potsdam, of which we have already spoken. This is a Protestant school: the last was a Catholic one.

"Until the middle of the last century there were no primary Normal schools in Brandenburgh. The schoolmasters were appointed by the parishes, either with the approbation of the authorities or with their knowledge, and were all drawn from the primary schools then established.

"All that was required of these masters, who were chiefly mechanics, was to be able to read, say the catechism, sing tolerably a few well-known psalm tunes, and to write and cipher a little. Numbers of shepherds, employed in summer-time in keeping sheep, during winter assumed the office of teachers of youth. The nobility used generally to bestow the place of schoolmaster (if it was at their disposal) on their valets or grooms, as a reward for past services. The primary schools in towns sometimes had masters a little better informed, but even they had neither good taste nor method in their manner of teaching."

* * * * *

"*Revenue of Normal School at Potsdam.*

"The Normal school receives yearly 5,400 thaler, (810*l.*) from different state funds, to which we must

add nearly 2,750 thaler (412*l.* 10*s.*) paid by the parents, and 250 thaler (32*l.* 10*s.*) by the children of the annexed primary school, so that the whole annual income of the whole establishment amounts to 8,400 thaler, or 1,260*l.*

"This sum serves to pay:

"1. The salaries of the masters.

"2. The household expenses.

"3. The materials for instruction for the Normal school and the school annexed.

"4. The garden-ground.

"5. The heating and lighting.

"6. The repairs of the building, furniture, and utensils; the insurance, taxes, and expenses of the house, &c.

"7. The maintenance of the pupils, the ten purses or exhibitions, and half purses, and the sundries.

"8. The physician and surgeon.

"*Inventory.*

"The establishment contains the following articles:

"1. Things required in the economy of the house.

"2. Sufficient and suitable furniture.

"3. A considerable library for the master and pupils, as well as a good collection of maps and globes for teaching geography.

"4. A tolerably complete collection of philosophical apparatus.

"5. A collection of minerals presented to the establishment by Councillor von Türck.

"6. A collection of stuffed birds and other objects in natural history.

"7. The instruments most required in mathematical instruction.

" 8. Complete drawing apparatus.

" 9. A very considerable collection of music.

" 10. A very good organ, a pianoforte, seven harpsichords, and many wind and string instruments.

" Additions are made every year from funds specially appropriated to this purpose; and by the care of the superior authorities, the whole inventory of the establishment is insured for 7,500 thaler (1,125*l.*) in the insurance-office at Aachen (Aix-la-Chapelle), at a premium of only about 14 thaler (2*l.* 2*s.*)

" *Domestic Economy and Maintenance of the Pupils.*

" To support about 80 pupils, and to preserve cleanliness in the house, a steward is appointed, whose duties are specified in a contract renewable every year.

" The food of the pupils is good and wholesome, which is proved by the state of their health. Some parents think fit to send their children eatables, or money to purchase them; they are wrong, for the children have no such want: on the contrary, so far from being advantageous, these presents serve only to take away their appetite at meals, and render them dainty and gluttonous. The orphans, and those whose parents are too poor to send them anything, are exactly those who are the strongest and healthiest.

" The director is almost always present at the meals, to be sure of the goodness of the food, and to prevent any irregularity in the serving up.

" Sick pupils are sent to the infirmary, and attended by the physician or surgeon of the establishment."

* * * * *

"The number of pupils is fixed by the regulation at from 75 to 80, and is now 78, of whom 72 live in the establishment; the other 6 have obtained a licence to remain with their parents in order to lessen the expense of maintenance.

"This number is determined, not only by the building, but also by the wants of the province. Brandenburgh contains about 1,500 masterships of primary schools in town and country. Supposing that out of 100 places two become vacant every year, there will be at least 30 masters required for this province: but these places for the most part pay so badly, that they are compelled to be content with but moderately qualified masters, who, perhaps, have not been educated at a Normal school, and who sometimes follow some trade or handicraft. If, then, the Normal school contains 78 pupils, who form three classes, one of which leaves annually, it will furnish every year 26 candidates, which about meets the wants of the country.

"*What is required of Applicants for Admission.*

"Once a year, at Michaelmas, 26 pupils are admitted. Of these are required:

"1. Good health and freedom from all bodily infirmities. (Obstacles to admission would be, exceeding smallness of stature, short-sightedness, or a delicate chest.)

"2. The age of seventeen complete.

"3. The evangelical religion.

"4. A moral and religious spirit, and a conduct hitherto blameless.

" 5. A good disposition and talents, amongst which are a good voice and a musical ear.

" 6. To be prepared for the studies of the Normal school by the culture of the heart and mind; to have received a good religious education (which shall include a knowledge of the Bible and biblical history); to be able to read; to know the grammar of the German language; composition, arithmetic, the principles of singing, the pianoforte, and the violin.

" A written request for admission must be sent to the director by June at the latest, accompanied with:

" 1. A certificate of birth and baptism.

" 2. A school certificate, and one of good conduct.

" 3. A police certificate, stating the condition of the young man or his father, or else a written declaration from the father or guardian, stating the time within which he can and will pay the annual sum fixed by law, *i. e.* 48 thaler, or 6*l.* 16*s.*"

* * * * *

" After the examination, the talents and merits of the respective candidates are conscientiously weighed and compared in a conference of the masters. The choice being made, it is submitted to the sanction of the royal school-board, with a detailed report of the result of the examination.

" At the end of some weeks the candidates are informed of the decision; their admission is announced, or the reasons which prevent it stated, with either advice to give up their project entirely, or suggestions relative to their future preparation."

* * * * *

" The number of applicants having been for some time past very great, the author of this report thinks

it his duty to warn parents (especially schoolmasters) whose children do not evince talent, and have not a decided taste for teaching, not to suffer them to lose the precious time which they might employ with much more success in some other career.

"This respects chiefly the poorer youths, who can have no claim to the exhibitions, unless they show proofs of an extraordinary capacity, from which the state and society may derive a real advantage."

* * * * *

"*Preparatory course recommended to those who are preparing young Men for the Normal School of Potsdam.*

"1. *Religion.* To awaken and fortify the religious spirit and the moral sentiments. For this purpose the histories and parables of the Bible are very useful: frequent reading and accurate explanation of the Bible are necessary. The pupils should be able to explain the articles of faith, and the most important duties, as laid down in the Catechism. Many sentences, whole chapters and parables from the holy scriptures, hymns and verses, should be known by heart; they should be able to give answers on the most interesting points of the *History of the Church and the Reformation.*"

[Each head is followed by a list of books recommended for use.]

"2. As to *general history*, there is no need of its being circumstantially or profoundly known; but the young men should be able to refer with exactness to those historical facts which may be properly used to form the heart, to exercise and rectify the judgment,

and to infuse a taste for all that is grand and noble, true and beautiful.

" 3. *Geometry,* (the study of forms,) combined with *elementary drawing,* the one as a basis for instruction in writing and drawing, and as a preparation for the mathematics; the other to exercise the hand, the eye, and the taste.

" 4. *Writing.* The copies by Heinrich and Henning only ought to be used, which, after long practice, give and preserve a beautiful hand, even when writing fast and much.

" 5. *Logical exercises.* These ought to tend to produce in young minds clearness and accuracy of ideas, justness of judgment, and by consequence facility and precision in oral and written exercises.

" 6. *Reading.* When once the pupil can read fluently, he must be taught to give emphasis to his reading, and to feel what he reads; he should be habituated to recite, and even gradually to analyse the phrases and periods he has just read, to change the order, and express the same idea in different words,—to put, for example, poetry into prose, &c. Thus these exercises serve at the same time to teach him to think and to speak. We advise also that he be made to declaim pieces he has learned by heart.

" 7. *German language and composition.* Language should be regarded and treated, on the one hand as a means of *formal instruction,* as practical logic, and on the other as an indispensable object of *material instruction.*

" 8. *Arithmetic.* This does not include either methods of abstruse calculation or practical arithmetic. Nothing more is required of the pupil than to use

figures without difficulty, and to calculate in his head.

" 9. *Pianoforte, violin, singing.* The formation of the voice and ear. Skill and firmness in producing sounds. Exercises in elementary singing. Psalmody.

" For the pianoforte and violin, as much dexterity as can be expected, and a good fingering for the former instrument.

" If these suggestions have the effect of inducing a conscientious master to train well even a few young candidates, they will have attained their object."

* * * * *

" *Moral Influence, Punishment, &c.*

" The means of correction adopted are, warnings, exhortations, reprimands; at first privately; then at the conference of the masters; lastly, before all the pupils. If these means do not suffice, recourse is had to confinement, to withdrawing the *stipendia* or exhibitions, and, in the last resort, to expulsion. But we endeavour as much as possible to prevent these punishments, by keeping up a friendly intercourse with the pupils, by distinguishing the meritorious, by striving to arouse a noble emulation, and to stir up in their hearts the desire of gaining esteem and respect by irreproachable conduct."

* * * * *

As to the branches of knowledge taught, and the course of study, the following is the fundamental plan:

FIRST YEAR.

SUBJECTS OF INSTRUCTION.	FIRST HALF-YEAR. *Winter.*	LESSONS.	SECOND HALF-YEAR. *Summer.*	LESSONS.
1. Religion.	Introduction to the Bible and Biblical History. Old Testament. Reading and explanation of the Bible.	4	Introduction to Bible & Biblical History. New Testament. Reading and explanation of the Bible. Sketch of Ecclesias. History and of the Christian religion.	4
2. German Language.	Preparatory logical exercises. Study of sounds, syllables, & words. Compositions.	4	End of the studies commenced. Orthography. Composition.	4
3. Reading.	Exercises in correct and systematic reading from good books. Recitation and declamation.	2	The same.	2
4. Arithmetic.	Exercises in integral numbers.	4	Exercises in fractions.	4
5. Geometry and Mathematics.	Geometry, as an exercise of thought and the basis of writing and drawing, and as a preparation for the mathematics.	3	Pure mathematics, as a means of formal instruction.	4
6. Writing.	Elements of German and English handwriting.	4	Calligraphy. German and English runninghand.	4
7. Drawing.	Elementary and linear drawing.	2	Drawing from casts.	2
8. Singing.	Elementary exercises. Church singing or psalmody.	4	First exercises in singing in parts. Psalmody.	4
9. Thoroughbass and Organ.	Gamut & chords.	2	Modulations.	2
10. Instrumental music, violin.	—	3	—	3
	Number of lessons per week.	32		33

"In the first year *formal instruction* predominates; in the second, *material instruction;* in the third, *practical instruction.* The pupils, having then about ten lessons a week to give in the annexed school, (lessons for which they must be well prepared,) follow fewer courses in the school.

"Our principal aim in each kind of instruction is to induce the young men to think and judge for themselves. We are opposed to all mechanical study and servile transcripts. The masters of our primary schools must possess intelligence themselves, in order to be able to awaken it in their pupils, otherwise the state would doubtless prefer the less expensive schools of Bell and Lancaster.

"We always begin with the elements, because we are compelled to admit, at least at present, pupils whose studies have been neglected; and because we wish to organize the instruction in every branch, so as to afford the pupils a model and guide in the lessons which they will one day be called upon to give.

"With respect to *material* instruction, we regard much more the solidity than the extent of the acquirements. This not only accords with the intentions of the higher authorities, but reason itself declares that solidity of knowledge alone can enable a master to teach with efficacy, and carry forward his own studies with success. Thus, young men of delicate health are sometimes exempted from certain branches of study, such as the mathematics, thorough-bass, and natural philosophy.

"Gardening is taught in a piece of ground before the Naüen-gate, and swimming in the swimming-

school established before the Berlin-gate, during the proper season, from seven to nine in the evening.

"*Practical* instruction we consider of the greatest importance. All the studies and all the knowledge of our pupils would be fruitless, and the Normal school would not fulfil the design of the institution, if the young teachers were to quit the establishment without having already methodically applied what they had learned, and without learning by experience what they have to do, and how to set about it.

"To obtain this result, it is not sufficient that the young men should see the course gone through under skilful masters, or that they should occasionally themselves give lessons to their schoolfellows; they must have taught the children in the annexed school for a long time, under the direction of the masters of the Normal school. It is only by familiarizing themselves with the plan of instruction for each particular branch, and by teaching each for a certain time themselves, that they can acquire the habit of treating it with method."—Pp. 262 and 263 (table 262½.)

"*Annexed School.*

"The annexed school was founded in 1825, and receives gratuitously from 160 to 170 boys. The higher authorities, in granting considerable funds for the establishment of this school, have been especially impelled by the benevolent desire of securing to the great mass of poor children in the town the means of instruction, and of relieving the town from the charge of their education.

"The town-authorities agreed, on their part, to pay the establishment one thaler and five silber-groschen

(3*s*. 6*d*.) per annum for each child. On this condition we supply the children gratuitously with the books, slates, &c. which they want.

"The annexed school is a primary school, which is divided into four classes, but reckons only three degrees; the second and third classes are separated from each other only for the good of the pupils, and for the purposes of affording more practice to the young masters.

"The first class, with the two above it, forms a good and complete elementary school; while the highest presents a class of a burgher school, where the most advanced pupils of the Normal school, who will probably be one day employed in town schools, give instruction to the cleverest boys of the annexed school.

"Here follows a table of what is taught in this school:

SUBJECTS TAUGHT.	Lowest Class.	The two Middle Classes.	Highest Class.
	Lessons.	Lessons.	Lessons.
1. Religion	4	4	3
2. Reading	6	6	2
3. The German Language	6	4	4
4. Arithmetic	3	4	4
5. Geometry and Drawing	2	2	2
6. Writing	3	3	4
7. Singing	2	3	3
8. Mathematics	—	—	2
9. Geography	—	—	2
10. Natural History	—	—	2
11. History	—	—	2
Number of Lessons in the Week	26	26	30

"As far as possible, all the classes of the school for practice attend to the same subject at the same hour. The master of the Normal school, who has prepared

the young masters beforehand, is present during the lesson. He listens, observes, and guides them during the lessons, and afterwards communicates his observations and opinion of the manner in which the lesson was given. Each class has a journal for each kind of instruction, in which what has been taught is entered after the lesson. As far as possible, the young master who is to give the next lesson witnesses that of his predecessor. By this means, and especially through the special direction of the whole practical instruction by a master of the Normal school, the connexion and gradation of the lessons is completely secured.

"It is requisite that every pupil of the Normal school should teach all the branches in the lowest class in succession; for the master of a primary school, however learned he may be, is ignorant of the most indispensable part of his calling if he cannot teach the elements.

"*Departure from the Normal School.—Examinations.—Certificate and Appointment.*

"The pupils quit the Normal school after having pursued the course for three years.

"But they must first go through an examination in writing and *vivâ voce,* as decreed by the ordinance of the minister of public instruction and ecclesiastical and medical affairs, of which we give an abstract.

"All the pupils of the primary Normal schools in the kingdom shall go through an examination on leaving.

"The examinations shall be conducted by all the masters of the Normal school, on all the subjects

taught in the house, in the presence and under the direction of one or more commissioners delegated by the provincial school-board.

"Every pupil before leaving shall give a probationary lesson, to show to what degree he possesses the art of teaching.

"After the examination is over, and exact accounts of the pupil's leaving are given by the director and all the masters, a certificate shall be given to each pupil, signed by the director, the masters, and the commissioners.

"This certificate shall specify the knowledge and talents of the pupil; it shall state whether he possesses the art of teaching, and whether his moral character renders him fit for the office of primary schoolmaster. It shall include, besides, a general opinion of his character and attainments, expressed by one of the terms, "excellent," "good," "passable," and answering to the numbers 1, 2, 3.

"This certificate only gives the pupil a provisional power of receiving an appointment for three years. After that time he must undergo a new examination at the Normal school. But any pupil who, on leaving the establishment, obtained number 1, and has in the course of the three first years been teacher in a public school, shall not have to pass another examination. No others can take a situation, except provisionally."

Pages 253—257.

"I can answer for the perfect fidelity of this description of the Normal school at Potsdam; and in the long visit and minute investigation of this great establishment which I made in person, I came to the conviction that the representation I have now submitted

to you, sir, and which was drawn up in 1826, was, in 1831, below the reality.

"The primary Normal school of Potsdam now contains 80 students; they all board in the house. The charge is 48 thaler (7*l.* 4*s.*) a year. Half the students pay this entire sum, others have purses (exhibitions) or half-purses. The director and the masters, to the number of five, are all lodged in the house. The director's salary is 1060 thaler (159*l.*) a year. The five masters have 530, 480, 400, 220, and 200 thaler, not including an allowance for wood; 180 thaler a year are devoted to the maintenance of a garden and of a gardener, who gives instruction in his art; 120 thaler a year are spent in books; the library already contains more than a thousand volumes. There is a little cabinet of mineralogy and natural history, a collection of seeds, a tellurium for the illustration of geographical and astronomical lessons; there is also a fine organ, for every one of the pupils is expected to be able to act as an organist. Each study has its pianoforte, each pupil his violin, and a small collection of books. The course of instruction is very solid, and at the same time very extensive; as has been seen in the fundamental plan which forms part of the preceding report, and by the annexed table, containing the prospectus or scheme of the lessons for the summer half-year of 1831.

"I saw this scheme in action; the spirit which dictated the arrangement and distribution of the tuition is excellent, and equally pervades all the details. The Normal course, which occupies three years, is composed, for the first year, of studies calculated to open the mind and to inculcate on the

pupils good method in every branch, and the feeling of what is the true vocation of a primary teacher. This is what is called the *formal instruction*, in opposition to the *material* or more positive instruction of the second year, in which the pupils go through special studies of a very solid kind, and learn considerably more than they will generally be called upon to teach. The third year is entirely practical, and is devoted to learning the art of teaching. This is precisely the plan which I take credit to myself for having followed in the organization of the studies of the great central Normal school of Paris, for the training of masters for the royal and communal *colleges*.

"At Potsdam, likewise, the third year comprises the sum of the two preceding, and the pupils are already considered as masters. In this view there is a primary school annexed to the Normal school, in which the students, in their third year, give lessons, under the superintendence of the masters of the Normal school. The children who attend this primary school pay, or rather the town pays for them, only four thaler (12*s.*) a year: there are 170. They are divided, according to their progress, into four classes, which are taught by the twenty or five-and-twenty students, or apprentice-masters, in their third year, with all the ardour of youth and of a new vocation. I was present at several of these lessons, which were extremely well given. A master of the Normal school frequently attends one of the classes, and when the lesson is finished, makes observations to the young masters, and gives them practical lessons, by which they can immediately profit.

"As appears from the prospectus, the musical in-

struction is carried on to a very high point. There are few students who have not a violin, and many of them leave the school very good organists and pianoforte players. Singing is particularly cultivated. The course of instruction embraces not only a little botany, mineralogy, physical science, natural history, and zoology, but exercises in psychology and logic, which tend to give the young men the philosophy of that portion of popular education intrusted to their care. I was present at several lessons—among others, one on history and chronology, in which, out of courtesy to me, the pupils were interrogated on the history of France, particularly during the reigns of Charles IX, Henry III, and Henry IV, a period of which Protestantism is so important a feature. The young men answered extremely well, and seemed perfectly familiar with the dates and leading facts. I say nothing of the gymnastic courses, as Prussia is the classic land of those exercises.

"What struck me most were the courses called in Germany *Methodik* and *Didaktik*, as also those designated by the name of *Pädagogik*: the two former intended to teach the art of tuition, the latter the more difficult art of moral education. I ought to add, that all the students of the school at Potsdam had a cheerful happy air, and that their manners were very good. If they brought any rusticity to the school, they had entirely lost it. I quitted the establishment highly satisfied with the students, full of esteem for the director, and of respect for a country in which the education of the people has reached such a pitch of prosperity."—Pp. 268—273.

The directing power of the machinery by which the

Prussian system of education is carried on is, have already mentioned, in the hands of a min state. If members of the Prussian governmen like our own ministers, responsible to represer of the people, we should say that the con power of public education was in the right h nay, we are of opinion that to an efficient and ent plan, it is essential that the supreme power be vested in the government.

Still, looking at the Prussian institutions as t in reality, we do not think it safe for the gove to hold in its hands so great a power as the question; namely, the control of the education people. Such a power may be conscientiously by this or that minister. Baron von Altenste be, and we believe is, an upright, benevolent, a man. But what security is there that his su shall be equal to him? that he should even ap him? nay, that he should not be the direct con every quality of heart and head?

That which is potent for good is often pot evil also. Ten years ago the Jesuits, once so and efficient in the cause of instruction, were education in France. We know of cases in wh cellent schools for popular and gratuitous ed were closed in consequence of their harassing ference. Let a bad man be appointed to the c minister of public instruction in Prussia, whom opinion (as yet perhaps but of feeble strength, ce but feebly declared through the shackled press country) cannot affect; who can be called to a by no representatives of the people (for the have no representatives);—and the very power

we hope is now being directed in most of its effects for the public weal, may be turned into an engine for perverting the minds and corrupting the hearts of the rising generation and future people of Prussia.

Preferring then as we do the certainty of obtaining a comparatively small amount of good, to the chance of obtaining a large amount, if coupled with a great risk of losing the whole, and still worse, of incurring a serious amount of evil, we cannot but regard the machinery of education now working in Prussia with distrust.

All the superior officers in the department of education are appointed directly by the government, which indirectly appoints the subordinate officers also. We do not wish to see the people exercising directly even the limited power confided to them in Prussia,—namely, that of nominating, subject to the veto of government, some of the members of a body whose duty it is to superintend the primary school of the particular district. Such power, indeed, we consider better than none at all, though we fear it will in many instances be productive of inconvenience rather than advantage: what we do wish to see is, that salutary public control which is exercised through the rectifying medium of a responsible government.

Cost of Education.

The Prussian system of education appears to be carried on at a very moderate expense, although it is not easy to make out from Mons. Cousin's Report what the expense really is.

We have seen that it is stated that about 2,000,000

taught in the house, in the presence and under the direction of one or more commissioners delegated by the provincial school-board.

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"This certificate shall specify the knowledge and talents of the pupil; it shall state whether he possesses the art of teaching, and whether his moral character renders him fit for the office of primary schoolmaster. It shall include, besides, a general opinion of his character and attainments, expressed by one of the terms, "excellent," "good," "passable," and answering to the numbers 1, 2, 3.

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"I can answer for the perfect fidelity of this description of the Normal school at Potsdam; and in the long visit and minute investigation of this great establishment which I made in person, I came to the conviction that the representation I have now submitted

to you, sir, and which was drawn up in 1826, was, in 1831, below the reality.

"The primary Normal school of Potsdam now contains 80 students; they all board in the house. The charge is 48 thaler (7*l.* 4*s.*) a year. Half the students pay this entire sum, others have purses (exhibitions) or half-purses. The director and the masters, to the number of five, are all lodged in the house. The director's salary is 1060 thaler (159*l.*) a year. The five masters have 530, 480, 400, 220, and 200 thaler, not including an allowance for wood; 180 thaler a year are devoted to the maintenance of a garden and of a gardener, who gives instruction in his art; 120 thaler a year are spent in books; the library already contains more than a thousand volumes. There is a little cabinet of mineralogy and natural history, a collection of seeds, a tellurium for the illustration of geographical and astronomical lessons; there is also a fine organ, for every one of the pupils is expected to be able to act as an organist. Each study has its pianoforte, each pupil his violin, and a small collection of books. The course of instruction is very solid, and at the same time very extensive; as has been seen in the fundamental plan which forms part of the preceding report, and by the annexed table, containing the prospectus or scheme of the lessons for the summer half-year of 1831.

"I saw this scheme in action; the spirit which dictated the arrangement and distribution of the tuition is excellent, and equally pervades all the details. The Normal course, which occupies three years, is composed, for the first year, of studies calculated to open the mind and to inculcate on the

pupils good method in every branch, and the feeling of what is the true vocation of a primary teacher. This is what is called the *formal instruction*, in opposition to the *material* or more positive instruction of the second year, in which the pupils go through special studies of a very solid kind, and learn considerably more than they will generally be called upon to teach. The third year is entirely practical, and is devoted to learning the art of teaching. This is precisely the plan which I take credit to myself for having followed in the organization of the studies of the great central Normal school of Paris, for the training of masters for the royal and communal *colleges*.

"At Potsdam, likewise, the third year comprises the sum of the two preceding, and the pupils are already considered as masters. In this view there is a primary school annexed to the Normal school, in which the students, in their third year, give lessons, under the superintendence of the masters of the Normal school. The children who attend this primary school pay, or rather the town pays for them, only four thaler (12*s*.) a year: there are 170. They are divided, according to their progress, into four classes, which are taught by the twenty or five-and-twenty students, or apprentice-masters, in their third year, with all the ardour of youth and of a new vocation. I was present at several of these lessons, which were extremely well given. A master of the Normal school frequently attends one of the classes, and when the lesson is finished, makes observations to the young masters, and gives them practical lessons, by which they can immediately profit.

"As appears from the prospectus, the musical in-

struction is carried on to a very high point. There are few students who have not a violin, and many of them leave the school very good organists and pianoforte players. Singing is particularly cultivated. The course of instruction embraces not only a little botany, mineralogy, physical science, natural history, and zoology, but exercises in psychology and logic, which tend to give the young men the philosophy of that portion of popular education intrusted to their care. I was present at several lessons—among others, one on history and chronology, in which, out of courtesy to me, the pupils were interrogated on the history of France, particularly during the reigns of Charles IX, Henry III, and Henry IV, a period of which Protestantism is so important a feature. The young men answered extremely well, and seemed perfectly familiar with the dates and leading facts. I say nothing of the gymnastic courses, as Prussia is the classic land of those exercises.

"What struck me most were the courses called in Germany *Methodik* and *Didaktik*, as also those designated by the name of *Pädagogik*: the two former intended to teach the art of tuition, the latter the more difficult art of moral education. I ought to add, that all the students of the school at Potsdam had a cheerful happy air, and that their manners were very good. If they brought any rusticity to the school, they had entirely lost it. I quitted the establishment highly satisfied with the students, full of esteem for the director, and of respect for a country in which the education of the people has reached such a pitch of prosperity."—Pp. 268—273.

The directing power of the machinery by which the

Prussian system of education is carried on is, as we have already mentioned, in the hands of a minister of state. If members of the Prussian government were, like our own ministers, responsible to representatives of the people, we should say that the controlling power of public education was in the right hands,—nay, we are of opinion that to an efficient and consistent plan, it is essential that the supreme power should be vested in the government.

Still, looking at the Prussian institutions as they are in reality, we do not think it safe for the government to hold in its hands so great a power as the one in question; namely, the control of the education of the people. Such a power may be conscientiously applied by this or that minister. Baron von Altenstein may be, and we believe is, an upright, benevolent, and able man. But what security is there that his successor shall be equal to him? that he should even approach him? nay, that he should not be the direct contrast in every quality of heart and head?

That which is potent for good is often potent for evil also. Ten years ago the Jesuits, once so zealous and efficient in the cause of instruction, were stifling education in France. We know of cases in which excellent schools for popular and gratuitous education were closed in consequence of their harassing interference. Let a bad man be appointed to the office of minister of public instruction in Prussia, whom public opinion (as yet perhaps but of feeble strength, certainly but feebly declared through the shackled press of the country) cannot affect; who can be called to account by no representatives of the people (for the people have no representatives);—and the very power which

we hope is now being directed in most of its effects for the public weal, may be turned into an engine for perverting the minds and corrupting the hearts of the rising generation and future people of Prussia.

Preferring then as we do the certainty of obtaining a comparatively small amount of good, to the chance of obtaining a large amount, if coupled with a great risk of losing the whole, and still worse, of incurring a serious amount of evil, we cannot but regard the machinery of education now working in Prussia with distrust.

All the superior officers in the department of education are appointed directly by the government, which indirectly appoints the subordinate officers also. We do not wish to see the people exercising directly even the limited power confided to them in Prussia,—namely, that of nominating, subject to the veto of government, some of the members of a body whose duty it is to superintend the primary school of the particular district. Such power, indeed, we consider better than none at all, though we fear it will in many instances be productive of inconvenience rather than advantage: what we do wish to see is, that salutary public control which is exercised through the rectifying medium of a responsible government.

Cost of Education.

The Prussian system of education appears to be carried on at a very moderate expense, although it is not easy to make out from Mons. Cousin's Report what the expense really is.

We have seen that it is stated that about 2,000,000

children (1,000,000 boys and 1,000,000 girls) are receiving daily instruction, but without board: also, that about 2,000 students are instructed and boarded in the Normal schools. Mons. Cousin estimates the total cost of the education of the children at nearly 600,000*l.* This would not be more than about six shillings a head per annum for each pupil. We suppose, however, that this sum does not include the money paid by the parents of the children, or the interest of money expended in land, buildings, &c. We have not been able to learn with any degree of certainty what the charges are which are paid by the parents, nor do we know at what sum the rent of the school, buildings, &c. may be estimated. Perhaps we should not be very far from the truth if we set down the amount under the two heads at another 600,000*l.* per annum, making in the whole 1,200,000*l.* or about twelve shillings per annum for each child. A further addition should indeed be made equal to the cost of the Normal schools for providing teachers for the children. This, however, makes scarcely a perceptible difference; not more than *four-pence a year* in the cost of the education of each child; for the whole expense of the 33 Normal schools is not more than 33,000*l.*, and this sum has to be divided among 2,000,000 children. By far the greater part of the money expended on education in Prussia is raised, either from the parents of the children, or by a rate on the inhabitants of the district. (This rate is levied in the form of a property-tax.) The state does not, in its corporate capacity, contribute more than 50,000*l.* a year in the whole.

STATE OF PUBLIC FEELING IN PRUSSIA TOWARDS THE NATIONAL SYSTEM OF EDUCATION.—It is very

desirable that this point should be carefully inquired into; Mons. Cousin says but little on the subject. If, however, he is correct in reporting that in many parts of the country the people send their children to the schools even before the time the law requires, it is probable that the people, in those districts at least, are well satisfied with the government plan of education.

SUMMARY.—Education in Prussia, compulsory—age from 7 to 14—the law very generally carried into effect—population nearly 13,000,000 (about equal to that of England)—number of children between 7 and 14 years of age, 2,043,000—number at school, stated to be 2,021,000—deficiency 22,000 only—course of instruction *laid down* includes not only reading, writing, and arithmetic, but music, the elements of history, geography, drawing, &c. besides different kinds of manual labour—discipline mild—teachers prepared in Normal schools—the whole system of education under the control of the Prussian government.

SPAIN.

IGNORANCE, superstition, poverty, and crime, are so closely associated in the mind with the very name of Spain, that to prove their existence in that country may be deemed altogether superfluous. The horrible scenes which are even now enacting in that unhappy land,—the massacre of monks and friars,—the burning of convents,—the murder of the representative of government who had come to suppress a ferocious tumult,—and the savage and bloodthirsty system on which warfare is being carried on—these mark beyond all dispute a corrupt and vicious state of popular feeling; and of the existence of great ignorance among the people at large, no one, we presume, entertains any doubt. A few facts, however, not confined to passing events, may be acceptable to some of our readers, and we shall therefore enter into a short examination of the subject. Independently of a few private sources of information, our principal authorities are Mr. Inglis, author of the admirable work on Ireland, who visited Spain in the year 1830; Captain S. E. Cook, R. N. who passed the greater part of the years 1829, 30, 31, and 32, in Spain; Mr. Jacob, who travelled through Spain in the year 1809; and M. Moreau de Jonnés, author of an important statistical work on Spain published last year (1834).

Education.—The most authentic return of the number of children receiving education in Spain was made in the year 1803, and it is believed that but little change has taken place since that time. M. Jonnés

takes this return as the basis of his present calculations.

We have so frequently expressed our scepticism regarding the trust-worthiness of documents of this kind, that we need not enter into a consideration of that question on the present occasion. There is, however, a wide space between perfect accuracy and that amount of error or wilful misrepresentation which renders a report valueless; though whereabout in the scale the present report may be placed we are unable to say. The population of Spain in 1803, according to a census taken in that year, was rather more than ten millions; and according to the returns we have referred to, the number of children receiving education (exclusive of those brought up in convents and monasteries) was only 29,900! or one in every 346 of the population! M. Jonnés estimates the population at the present time at about fourteen millions and a half (nearly the same as that of England and Wales); and assuming, as he does, that about the same fraction of the population is receiving education as in the year 1803, M. Jonnés estimates the present number of children at school in the whole of Spain at not more than about 43,000; and pursuing his calculations, he shows that if his data be correct, not more than one child in 35 ever goes to school. He further states, that the children thus favoured are exclusively from the middle and upper classes.

"If," says M. Jonnés, "such a state of things appears so extraordinary as to make us doubt the accuracy of the statement, let us recollect that we should have found the same state of things in France, if we had been born a few generations earlier.

* * * * *

"In France at that time [the early part of last century] as in Spain at the present day, one-half of the population, namely, the female portion, were almost entirely shut out from the advantages of education; for even the miserable instruction given by the nuns in some of the convents was confined to the daughters of the nobility. The mass of the people also were excluded as a matter of course from all share in the benefits of public education; the only exception being in favour of such as were destined for the church. Thus we may consider education as having been confined to the male children of the nobility and of the middle classes. Such was the state of education in France until nearly the close of the eighteenth century, and such is its present state in Spain."

Statistique de l'Espagne, p. 268.

How far the education given to the favoured few is of a practical and useful kind, may be conjectured from the following extract from M. Jonnés' work. After speaking of the many libraries, schools, colleges, and universities, the creation of past times, but which still exist, M. Jonnés says:—"But these institutions were intended for a state of society which had nothing in common with that of the present day: the kind of instruction afforded in them, confined as it is to prayer, church discipline, and the dogmas of theology, has no connexion with the interests and wants of the existing generation; and is as much out of place, as were the idle disputes of the Greek sectarians at the very time the Turks were besieging Constantinople. The books to be found in the libraries teach nothing that will aid in restoring prosperity to Spain; and as well might one pore over the old writings on papyrus

in the catacombs of Upper Egypt, as disinter from the dust in which they lie buried the folios of the Escurial or the archives of Sinancas.

"What every enlightened man in Spain has long called for, is a national, popular, gratuitous education, extending to all classes, as well in the towns as in the rural districts. Up to the present time the people have received no other instruction than that afforded them by the clergy, which has had scarcely any other object than the performance of religious ceremonies."

About the year 1807 there was, we believe, some relaxation in this manacle-system of education; but the slightest degree of mental freedom, and the most minute portion of popular knowledge, were enough to alarm that silly and treacherous personage King Ferdinand; who, when restored to his loving subjects by the bayonets of the Duke d'Angoulême and his doughty followers, soon "remodelled" the system of education in Spain. Let us hear Mr. Inglis on this topic. Writing in the year 1830, he says,—"Government still seeks for support in the influence of the church, and endeavours by every means to keep up this influence. This, it may easily be supposed, is attempted through the medium of education, which throughout Spain may be said to be a government concern. The schools in Madrid are all conducted by Jesuits, and the education received in them is such as might be expected from their hands. This surveillance commenced when the king returned to the head of the government in 1824. The colleges were then remodelled; and all the public seminaries, even those destined for military education, were placed under Jesuit heads. I have frequently met in the streets of

Madrid long lines of students of the Colegio Imperial, and of the Seminario de Nobles, some in military uniform, and each company headed by a priest. And no choice is left to the people as to the education of their children; the only choice is the government school, or no school; for obstacles almost insurmountable are thrown in the way of private tuition. Before a family dare employ a tutor, the permission of government must be obtained, and the tutor must provide himself with a licence; this implies minute inquiries into character, political and religious opinions, &c.; so that in fact no tutor is ever licensed unless there is a perfect security that the system of education to be pursued by him—intellectual, political, and religious—shall be precisely the same as that taught in the public seminaries; there is nothing, therefore, gained by private tuition. Whether the priesthood may possibly regain any part of its lost influence, owing to the present system of education, may admit of a question. If Spain should remain in its present condition, without revolution or change, it is probable that the growth of liberal opinions may be retarded; the thousands now educated on jesuitical principles, and denied the means of real knowledge, were not old enough, during the existence of the constitution, to have caught a glimpse of the light which at that time dawned upon the darkness of Spain; nor have they had opportunities of being influenced by French principles during the time of the occupation of the Peninsula. The policy of the Spanish government, therefore, with respect to its surveillance of education, is not unworthy of a government that desires to maintain itself by the blindness of the people."—*Spain in* 1830, vol. i. p. 156.

Before closing this brief notice of the state of education in Spain, we are bound to mention that this account does not accord with the reports of Mr. Jacob and Captain S. E. Cook. Mr. Jacob certainly describes the state of education among the higher classes as intolerably bad; but he says there is a general provision for the education of the lower classes; though, as he justly observes, to teach them to read is not sufficient; and to induce them to retain the art, books must be provided very different from those to be found in Spain. Captain Cook says there is no want of common education in Spain, and that there are abundance of parochial schools; and adds in a note, that since writing his work he has seen in a newspaper a statement of the new government, by which it appears that there is at the present time a provision in Spain for the education of 500,000 persons; which Captain Cook considers "a great number in a population of twelve millions."

Though we are far from agreeing with Captain Cook that one in twenty-four is a large fraction to be at school, (one in five or six is the proportion in New England,) we nevertheless must admit that his report, and that of M. Moreau de Jonnés, are very widely apart. A difference of two millions and a half in the population might be borne with equanimity; but what shall we say to a difference of twelve to one in the number receiving education? M. Jonnés declares that there are not more than about 40,000 persons receiving education at the present time in Spain, and that the education of the lower classes of the people is altogether unprovided for: while Captain Cook avers that there is an abundance of schools; and on the

authority of the Spanish government reports that there is provision for the education of 500,000 persons. We are always prepared to make a very liberal allowance for blunders in statistical returns, and for a desire to bring out given results, but we must say that the disparities here are excessive.

Literature.—As a means of testing to some extent the accuracy of the different reports regarding the state of popular education in Spain, let us inquire what amount of reading is provided to meet the general demand? and what is its usual character? And first as to newspapers. The number of newspapers published in England and Wales is about 230: and how many will the reader suppose existed in Spain three years ago? Literally only ONE! Yes, one miserable government gazette was the sole channel through which twelve or fourteen millions of people, spread over a vast territory, were to be supplied with information on the momentous affairs of their own country and of the whole external world! Now this single fact, which from its very nature is too notorious to be made matter of question, appears to us to outweigh in value an infinite number of general assertions, and of statistical returns made by a government and its officials, in whose *desire* even for accuracy we can have no confidence.

We are aware that other causes besides general ignorance and incapacity to read, may, and did unite to produce this wretched state of the public press. The poverty of the people had its effect; and the power of the priest-ridden government was also exerted to prevent the publication of newspapers. But how inadequate such causes would be to stop the newspaper

press in England, or in any country in which education has created a strong appetite for knowledge!

We are glad to learn, that since the liberal party came into power, new journals have arisen in many different quarters. We trust that this increase in the means of diffusing political knowledge will be followed by a proportionate improvement in general literature; the supply of books, especially those of a useful and practical kind, being at present miserably small. Some progress in this respect had taken place even before the death of Ferdinand; the old prohibitive system established by the Inquisition having become partially inoperative, notwithstanding all the efforts on the part of the Spanish government to maintain it in full vigour. Writing on this subject Mr. Inglis says:—"A priest with whom I was acquainted in Madrid, telling me one day that he had thoughts of going to London or Paris to print an English and Spanish grammar, and a German and Spanish grammar, which he had written, I asked him why he did not print them in Madrid, since they were intended for the use of his own countrymen, especially as they could contain nothing political? His answer was, that nothing was so difficult as to obtain a licence to publish a book, even although it contained no allusion to politics; and 'the better the book,' said he, 'the more difficult it is to obtain a licence, and the more dangerous to publish; because government does not wish to encourage writing, or even thinking, upon any subject; and the publication of a good book sets men a-thinking.'"

"This comprehensive reply explains pretty nearly the present state of literature in Spain: judging of it by the number and merit of published works. The

number of books published from 1820 to 1823 was very considerable. The energy then communicated to letters, from the removal of almost all restriction, was extraordinary; books upon all subjects issued from the press, and the best proof perhaps that can be given that many of these were books of talent is, that most of them are now prohibited. Literature, however, then received an impetus, which still continues in some degree to affect it, notwithstanding the difficulties to be overcome; for there is a considerably greater number of books published now than previous to the revolution; and no reasonable doubt can be entertained, that another removal of the restrictions which press upon literature would bring into the field a large accession of native talent.

"Even after a licence has been obtained to publish a manuscript, its publication is still a dangerous speculation; because it frequently happens, that when the book is printed and partly circulated, some great man, even more fastidious than the censors, discovers a dubious passage, and the book is prohibited. There are four difficulties, therefore, which an author must resolve to face, before he sits down to prepare his manuscript;—the probability that he may be refused a licence; the probability that before being licensed his manuscript may be mutilated; (a probability that, I am told, amounts almost to a certainty, unless the work be upon one of the exact sciences;) the probability that, after the work be published, some caprice may forbid its sale; and the certainty, that if the work be a talented work, the author of it, whether obtaining his licence or no, will be looked upon with suspicion;

and, if in government employment, will almost certainly lose his appointment.

"These are sad drawbacks upon literary exertion. But there is yet another; men are afraid to read, as well as to write; and the sale of a work is therefore insecure. Booksellers do not care to venture upon the publication without some guarantee; the consequence of which is, that almost every book published in Spain is published by subscription, or in numbers, or both in numbers and by subscription; by either of which modes the risk is lessened."

Spain in 1830, vol. i. p. 265.

Writing from Seville in 1809, Mr. Jacob says:—"The booksellers inhabit a street called Calle Genova, and are as badly furnished as other traders. Most books of value are printed in Madrid; and from the present state of the intercourse between the two capitals, cannot be conveyed hither without incurring great risk. The principal stock consists of old books of divinity, lives of saints, dissertations on the antiquities of the country, and a very few bad editions of the Latin classics. You will be surprised to be informed, that in this city the only map of Spain I could procure was a very bad one published in London."

Jacob's Travels in Spain, p. 168.

In 1830, Mr. Inglis, writing from Madrid, says:—"I questioned the book-venders as to the demand, and in what current it ran. They informed me that the demand for religious books was on the decline, and that the lives of saints especially were almost unmarketable. Translations from French and English, especially the former, and even works in the French

language, were asked for; the demand was also large and constant for the Spanish dramatists and novels, especially Don Quixote and Gil Blas, which were to be seen on every stall in great numbers, and of various editions."—*Spain in* 1830, vol. i. p. 272.

The number of libraries appears to have increased but very little during the interval betwixt Mr. Jacob's visit and Mr. Inglis's. Mr. Jacob says, that any one, even a nobleman, who had a private library, would be regarded almost as a phenomenon; and Mr. Inglis, speaking on the same topic, says:—"In truth, there is a miserable want of resource in most parts of Spain. The *régime* of married life forbids those domestic enjoyments—those home occupations — that fill up so large a portion of the evening hours of an English family of the middle classes; books and study are almost out of the question, because, unless in the principal cities, public libraries are nowhere to be found, and private libraries are luxuries that few possess. Spain has not, like France, the resource of the coffee-house, nor, like England, the news of yesterday, to employ a vacant hour; and therefore the Spaniard seeks relief from *ennui* in cards, which are always at hand, and are at all times capable of producing the same enjoyment."—*Spain in* 1830, vol. ii. p. 301.

Superstition.—As further evidence of the ignorance of the Spaniards, we may refer for a moment to their superstition; too notorious to require any proof of its existence. Great, however, as is the superstition of the Spanish people, it is not, happily, *so great* as it was; and it would be almost as impossible to perform the bloody tragedy of an auto-da-fe in Spain at the present day, as it would be to revive in this country

the hanging of Popish priests for the performance of mass; a practice so much extolled in the golden times of good Queen Bess.

In Spain, however, there is still much to be done before superstition, even in its darker shades, can be swept from the land. We fear we should estimate the state of Spain too highly, if we were to put it on a par with that of our own country two centuries ago. Not that it will require so long a space of time to bring the Spaniards to our present condition. The great improvement which has taken place in Europe in general, and in England in particular, within the last two hundred years, furnishes the means of a much more rapid progress. May the good work be commenced without delay, and carried on with vigour, for there is much to be done!

Mr. Inglis gives some instances of superstition and silly credulity which came to his knowledge, and a few of these we will extract. One of the most amusing perhaps is rather the result of an act of superstition, than the act itself.

"I was greatly amused by the history of a law-suit that was pending while I was at Alicant. A certain rich proprietor having died about six months before, left money to the church sufficient to purchase twelve thousand masses for his soul; but after a few of these had been said, the masses were discontinued, and the process was brought by the heir to recover the sum left for the masses, the church having failed to fulfil the condition upon which the money was bequeathed. The defence set up was sufficiently singular. Those upon whom the duty of saying these masses devolved, willing to be excused from the labour, interceded with

the bishop, who interceded with his holiness the Pope; the defence against the claim was the production of the Pope's letter, which declared by his sovereign authority, that the celebration of twelve masses should have the same effect, and be as beneficial to the soul of the deceased, as the celebration of twelve thousand masses.

"The decision upon the case had not been given when I left Alicant; but as it involved a question touching the Pope's spiritual power, the probabilities are, that his holiness would prove an overmatch for the heir. The argument of the counsel in support of the claim was merely non-fulfilment of the stipulated duty; while the argument for the church was, that the deceased had intended to benefit his soul to a certain extent, for which he left a certain sum of money; and that since his soul was benefited to the same extent by the performance of twelve, as twelve thousand masses, the intention of the deceased was equally fulfilled, and the money, therefore, equally the property of those who fulfilled it. But this evidently leaves room for a rejoinder as to the power and value of the Pope's letter."—*Spain in* 1830, vol. ii. page 307.

In another part of his work Mr. Inglis, after giving more instances of blind credulity, says,

"Not six months before this, it was given out that a certain image of the Virgin, who had up to that time honoured the Carthusian convent by making her abode in it, was found one morning upon the summit of St. John's Hill: she was brought back to the convent; but next morning she was again discovered to be missing, and was again found on St. John's Hill. A third time she was made prisoner by the Carthusi-

ans, and a third time she returned to her favourite spot on St. John's Hill. The fathers, no longer able to resist the evidence of the Virgin's will, erected a chapel for her on St. John's Hill, where she now attracts the footsteps of the devout. It is scarcely credible that an imposition like this should be practised in the middle of the nineteenth century, and yet the hoax succeeded, and thousands in Seville believe that the Carthusian friars were concerned in the affair no farther than in yielding to the wishes of the Virgin in erecting a chapel for her."—Vol. ii. page 63.

"Barcelona has always been celebrated for the zeal of its priesthood, and for the pains taken by them to hoodwink the people; and even in these days religious bigotry is far more prevailing than might be expected in a city so near the frontier, and which has had so much connexion with foreign nations. In another chapter I related a circumstance that occurred eight years ago, when a peasant was condemned to ten years' imprisonment in the citadel, because he said unthinkingly, that an image of some virgin was made of wood: and so late as the year 1827, another very flagrant example of religious superstition, and of the use made of it even in these days by the clergy, occurred at Barcelona. There was in one of the churches or convents an image of a virgin, called, I believe, the Virgin of St. Pilar, and this image was black. It was at this time that an outcry had been raised against the liberals, who were called negroes, (negro is the Spanish for black;) and the rumour got abroad that the negroes went to this church to pay adoration to the Black Virgin. Such being the case, the priests and friars ventured upon and concerted a

miracle, which might have the double effect of strengthening the faith of the people, and of bringing the negroes into still greater discredit. One morning it was publicly announced that the Virgin of St. Pilar had changed from black to white, and the good Catholics of Barcelona were invited to go and see the miracle with their own eyes; and they went by thousands. Let it not be forgotten that this happened only three years ago."—Vol. ii. page 390.

Morals, &c.—The amount of crime in Spain is appalling. We have before us a return of convictions for the year 1826, from which we shall make some extracts. Our reason for taking this year is simply because we are unable to procure any return for a later one; and such is the irregularity of all the movements in the machine of government in Spain, that it is probable no subsequent return exists; indeed, had there been such a document, M. Jonnés would have certainly obtained it for his statistical work. The number of convictions for murder in England and Wales in the year 1826 was 13; and the number convicted of wounding, &c. with intent to kill, was 14. These numbers are lamentably large. That the horrible crime of murder should ever be perpetrated is a most melancholy fact; and that so many as thirteen murders should be committed in one year must fill the mind of every moral man and lover of his country with grief and shame. But great as this number is absolutely, it sinks into insignificance when compared with the number of murders perpetrated in Spain; for in that unhappy country, in the single year of 1826, the number of convictions for murder reached the frightful height of *twelve hundred and thirty-three!*

In addition to which, there were 1,773 convictions on charges of maiming with intent to kill, and 1,620 persons were convicted of robbery under aggravated circumstances. If, as we doubt not for an instant, this mass of crime is the offspring of ignorance, and that this ignorance has been fostered by the monks and friars, these wretched men are now learning by terrible experience the error they have committed;—on their devoted heads is the storm bursting. We heartily wish that, on the one hand, it were possible to shield these unhappy men from the fury of the hurricane, and, on the other, to avert the mischief which the blind multitude are inflicting on the cause they intend to support.

The following extracts from the works of Mr. Inglis and Captain S. E. Cook are in accordance with the returns of crime we have referred to: indeed, we much fear, from the feeble administration of justice in Spain, that even these returns, dreadful and appalling as they are, fall far short of the reality.

"The truest proofs of a good government are just laws; and the best evidence of a well-organized government is to be found in their strict execution. Judging the Spanish government by these tests, it will appear the worst and weakest government that ever held together. Justice of no kind has any existence; there is the most lamentable insecurity of person and property: redress is never certain, because both judgment and execution of the laws are left to men so inadequately paid, that they must depend for their subsistence upon bribery. Nothing is so difficult as to bring a man to trial who has anything in his purse, except to bring him to execution: this, un-

less in Madrid and in Catalonia, where the Conde de Espana is captain-general, is impossible, for money will always buy indemnity. Everything in Spain connected with the following out of the laws is in the hands of the escrivanos: these are the friends of all bad men; for whatever be the action a man may commit or meditate, he has only to confide in the escrivano, and pay for his protection.

"The following remarkable fact I had from the lips of an eye-witness, a highly respectable American merchant of Malaga. One day last winter two butchers quarrelled in the market-place, and got to high words; and one of them, according to the practice in such cases, put his hand under his girdle and half drew forth his knife. All the while, an escrivano, of known talent in his profession—a man who never allowed any one who confided in him to be either tried or executed—stood close by. While the man still but half showed his knife, as if uncertain whether to use it or no, the escrivano continued to jog him on the elbow: 'Da le,' (give it him,) said the lawyer, 'aqui estoy yo;' (don't you see that I am here, so that no harm can come to you.) The butcher, however, had not been sufficiently roused, for he put up his knife; and the escrivano, turning to him with a look of contempt, said, 'Alma miserable!' (mean-spirited creature,) 'and so, for the sake of 400 or 500 reals, you would not revenge yourself upon your enemy!'"—*Spain in* 1830, vol. i. p. 315.

"The escrivanos, who figure so much in the economy of Spain, are the representatives of the lowest class of attorneys (supposing that a still lower class existed), and had official appointments in the villages

in England. In a country and in a state of society like that we are delineating, it is clear they must play a considerable part,—in fact, nothing can be done without them; and they are not unfrequently almost the sole authority in a place capable of reading and writing. Notwithstanding the miserable state of the rural districts, they contrive to make money, and many of them rise from this humble office to much higher places in the state. Their wretched appointments are consequently objects of competition. I witnessed the execution of one at Seville, by accidentally entering the plaza when the Capuchins were bawling out the last words for his repetition, announcing to the crowd that they had done their duty, and he died in the true faith. He had been superseded in some village in the vicinity, and assassinated his rival."—*Cook's Sketches in Spain*, vol. i. p. 197.

Scarcely had Mr. Inglis passed the Bidassoa, which forms part of the boundary between France and Spain, when preparations against robbers became necessary. "At Irun [a northern frontier town,] the mail stops a short time; and before proceeding on its journey, formidable precautions are taken against the possibility of robbery. I saw three carabines and four cases of pistols deposited about the coach; and three additional guards, each armed with a long sabre, took their seats behind and in the cabriolet. These preparations naturally create doubts in the mind of the traveller as to his personal safety; nor are these altogether without foundation: there is undoubtedly some exaggeration on the subject of robbery of the public conveyances in Spain, but it is certain that the mails are occasionally stopped, especially in the southern parts.

It is beneath the dignity of the government to enter into a treaty with banditti, for the safety of the mails; and, as resistance must be made in case of an attack, the traveller by the mail is necessarily placed in a dangerous position; but in the diligence he runs comparatively little risk.

"I can state, upon certain information received in Madrid, that every one of the principal Spanish diligences, with the exception of that from Barcelona to Perpignan, pays black mail to the banditti for their protection. This arrangement was at first attended with some difficulty; and from a gentleman who was present at the interview between the person employed to negotiate on behalf of the diligences and the representative of the banditti, I learned a few particulars. The diligences in question were those between Madrid and Seville, and the sum offered for their protection was not objected to; but another difficulty was started. 'I have nothing to say against the terms you offer,' said the negotiator for the banditti, 'and I will at once ensure you against being molested by robbers of consequence; but as for the small fry (ladrones de ninguna consideracion), I cannot be responsible: we respect the engagements entered into by each other, but there is nothing like honour among the petty thieves.' The proprietors of the diligences, however, were satisfied with the assurance of protection against the great robbers, and the treaty was concluded; but not long afterwards one of the coaches was stopped and rifled by the petty thieves: this led to an arrangement which has ever since proved effectual; one of the chiefs accompanies the coach on its journey, and overawes, by his

name and reputation, the robbers of inferior degree."—*Spain in* 1830, vol. i. p. 2.

In confirmation of Mr. Inglis's statements, we cite the following passages from Captain Cook's work:—

"The next day, on the way to Cordova, we passed a detachment who were posted in a cortijo; but they did not attempt to molest us. We passed the dead body of one who had been killed in a quarrel amongst themselves, most probably respecting the division of spoil. We escaped the large bands by a fresh agreement having been made by the administration of diligences, who paid, I understood, an ounce (about three guineas) for each coach, by way of black mail to Jose Maria. To make up this sum, the fares, which were already very high, were raised."

Cook's Sketches of Spain, vol. ii. p. 17.

"When I was last at Seville, the road was so insecure, that a lady of rank who was going to Ecija was escorted by nearly thirty men, paid for the purpose by her husband.

"The ancient practice of travelling in large bodies for mutual defence was renewed the same spring at the great fair of Mairena. This fair is resorted to from all parts, for the purchase of horses and other animals. The Valencians, whose country is unfavourable to the breeding of stock, came in a body of nearly one hundred, all armed, carrying the money necessary for their purchases. The silversmiths of Cordova were prevented attending by the same cause of the insecurity of the roads.

"I was at Seville when he [Jose Maria] took advantage of the absence of the captain-general, who was at Vejer with all the disposable troops, and occu-

pied for a whole day a post on the great road of Madrid, which was actually in sight of the Giralda. His prisoners in the afternoon amounted to near seventy. The diligence passed during the time; but his object was not to rob that conveyance, which was too hazardous in such a locality, and, drawing everybody inside, he allowed it to pass without being perceived. Amongst the sufferers were some officers of a regiment in garrison, and a youth who was repairing to Seville with all the money his friends could raise in order to be ordained a priest. He begged that it might be returned; but Jose only gave him a dollar, observing that the distance he had to travel was very short, and that he would find ample assistance from his brethren in the city."

Cook's Sketches in Spain, vol. ii. pp. 10—14.

Confirmatory of his statements respecting the frequency of murder, Mr. Inglis gives the following lamentable account of the state of things in Seville:—

"If vice degrade the manners of the upper and middle classes in Seville, crime of a darker turpitude disfigures the character and conduct of the lower orders. Scarcely a night passes without the commission of a murder: but these crimes are not perpetrated in cold blood from malevolent passions, still less from love of gain; they generally spring from the slightest possible causes. The Andalusian is not so abstemious as the Castilian, and the wine he drinks is stronger; he has also a great propensity for gambling, the fruitful engenderer of strife; and the climate has doubtless its influence upon his passions. 'Will you taste with me?' an Andalusian will say to some associate with whom he has had some slight difference,

offering him his glass. 'No, gracias,' the other will reply. The former, already touched with wine, will half drain his glass, and present it again, saying, 'Do you not wish to drink with me?' and if the other still refuses the proffered civility, it is the work of a moment to drain the glass to the dregs, to say, 'How! not taste with me?' and to thrust the knife an Andalusian always carries with him into the abdomen of the comrade who refused to drink with him. It is thus, and in other ways equally simple, that quarrel and murder disfigure the nightly annals of every town in Andalusia, and of the other provinces of the south of Spain. There is an hospital in Seville dedicated to the sole purpose of receiving wounded persons: I had the curiosity to visit it, and ascertained that during the past fourteen days, twenty-one persons had been received into the hospital wounded from stabs—they would not inform me how many of these had died."—*Spain in* 1830, vol. ii. p. 56.

In another place Mr. Inglis writes as follows:—"Andujar is considered one of the most dangerous spots between Madrid and Seville: about a week after my arrival at the latter place, the mail was robbed within about two leagues of Andujar. This robbery was attended with one circumstance rather inconsistent with the usual civility of Spanish banditti. After every package had been rifled, the four passengers, three gentlemen and one lady, were stripped, all excepting the camisa, and in this plight were put into the carriage; the postilion also made his entry into Andujar in his shirt."—*Spain in* 1830, vol. ii. p. 34.

The traveller does not find any greater security south of Seville:—"Between Chiclana, which lies

near Cadiz and Algesiras, opposite to Gibraltar, a distance of nearly eighty miles, there is only one town, and the ventas are of a most miserable description:—but these are difficulties only; the dangers are still more formidable. From the middle of last June till the middle of August in the same year, no fewer than fifty-three travellers had been robbed upon this road: many of these robberies had been attended with violence; and in some instances the travellers had been taken into the mountains, and long detained in hope of ransom. More than two months had indeed elapsed since these robberies had been committed, and the danger was therefore less; the regular band under Don Jose had been broken up, and twenty-one of their number were at that time under sentence of death at St. Roque; but the road was still considered unsafe—the post from Malaga had been robbed only the day before, and I was strongly counselled to go to Malaga by sea."—*Spain in* 1830, vol. ii. p. 137.

"The Spanish banditti are in too much force for individual resistance to be of any avail. Resistance is a thing that no traveller in certain parts of Spain should ever dream of: before setting out he must make up his mind to the probability of being robbed, and provide accordingly, not by hiring an escort, or by loading his pistols, but by putting about twenty dollars into a separate purse, to buy civility in case of need, and by obtaining a letter of credit upon the next town."—*Spain in* 1830, vol. ii. p. 251.

We quote several other passages, showing the great insecurity of person and property in various parts of Spain.

"At Alicant I heard the worst accounts of the

road to San Felipe. Every one agreed that there was the utmost danger of robbery, and urged upon me the necessity of taking an escort. The danger of robbery upon this road is not by regular banditti, but by itinerant, or idle, or ill-disposed peasantry, who have frequently been known to leave their work in the fields to intercept and rob a traveller, and then return to their occupation."—*Spain in* 1830, vol. ii. p. 309.

"Hundreds of the artisans of Granada are in a state of perfect destitution, supported only by charity or thieving: to so great an extent has theft been carried, that in one night, while I was in Granada, twenty-six persons were arrested in the act."—Vol. ii. p. 242.

"The whole idle population of Malaga are thieves; and in so degraded a state is public justice in this city, that crimes of a far darker hue than theft pass unpunished, because to take notice of them would be to court the worst effects of revenge. In another chapter I have illustrated by an example the perfect security with which, in Malaga, a man may obey the very worst passions.

"A woman who dares prosecute the murderer of her husband speedily receives a private intimation that effectually silences her; and it has been not uncommon for money to be put into the hands of an escrivano previous to the commission of a murder, in order to ensure the services and protection of a person so necessary to one who meditates crime. I will relate a trifling circumstance that occurred while I was at Malaga, in corroboration of what I have been saying.

"One night Mr. F., a most respectable merchant of the town, while on his way home, was stopped and

robbed. The man who committed the robbery was very well known to the gentleman whom he robbed: he was a waterman, owning a boat, and plying betwixt the pier and the vessels. Next morning Mr. F. having occasion to go out to a vessel, walked down to the pier, and was stepping into a boat when another man offered his services. Mr. F. without turning to look at the man who spoke, said this was his ordinary boatman, and he always employed men whom he knew. 'What, sir!' said the other, lifting his hat above his brow, 'don't you know me?' Mr. F. turned round, and saw the man who had robbed him the night before: and yet, to prosecute a man who thus in open day claimed the recollection of the person he had robbed, would be a hazard that no prudent inhabitant of Malaga dare encounter."—*Spain in* 1830, vol. ii. p. 181.

Perhaps nothing more clearly marks the existence among the Spaniards of a general want of sympathy for pain, and a craving for vicious excitement—circumstances which act to some extent as a cause, and which are almost always found to be concomitants of murders and robberies—than their bull-fights. Before reading Mr. Inglis's work, we were not aware how very brutal and debasing these exhibitions are; we had no idea that under their exciting influence the feelings of the audience could be worked up to such a pitch of madness, that even the sacrifice of human life ceases to have an effect upon them. The following is part of Mr. Inglis's account of one of these ferocious spectacles:—

"When the people are tired of the banderilleros, and wish to have a fresh bull, they signify their impatience

in the usual way, and the signal is then given for the matador, whose duty it is to kill the bull. The matador is in full court-dress, and carries a scarlet cloak over his arm and a sword in his hand: the former he presents to the bull; and when the bull rushes forward, he steps aside and plunges his sword in the animal's neck,—at least so he ought to do—but the service is a dangerous one, and the matador is frequently killed. Sometimes it is impossible for the matador to engage upon equal terms a very wary bull which is not much exhausted. This was the case with the sixth bull which I saw turned out; it was an Andalusian bull, and was both wary and powerful. Many times the matador attempted to engage him, but without success; he was constantly upon the watch, always disregarding the cloak, and turning quick round upon the matador, who was frequently in imminent danger.

"At length the people were tired of this lengthened combat, and seeing no prospect of its ending, called for the semi-luna, an instrument with which a person skulks behind and cuts the hamstrings of the animal: this the bull avoided a long while, always turning quickly round; and even after this cruel operation was performed, he was still a dangerous antagonist, fighting upon his knees, and even pursuing the matador. The moment the bull falls, he is struck with a small stiletto, which pierces the cerebellum: folding-doors, opposite to those by which the bull enters, are thrown open, and three mules, richly caparisoned and adorned with flags, gallop in; the dead bull is attached by a hook to a chain, and the mules gallop out, trailing the bull behind them. This is the work of a moment;—

the doors close, there is a new flourish of trumpets, and another bull rushes upon the arena.

"And how do the Spaniards conduct themselves during all these scenes? The intense interest which they feel in this game is visible throughout, and often loudly expressed; an astounding shout always accompanies a critical moment: whether it be the bull or the man who is in danger, their joy is excessive; but their greatest sympathy is given to the feats of the bull. If the picador receives the bull gallantly and forces him to retreat, or if the matador courageously faces and wounds the bull, they applaud these acts of science and valour; but if the bull overthrow the horse and his rider, or if the matador miss his aim and the bull seems ready to gore him, their delight knows no bounds. And it is certainly a fine spectacle to see the thousands of spectators rise simultaneously, as they always do when the interest is intense; the greatest and most crowded theatre in Europe presents nothing half so imposing as this. But how barbarous, how brutal is the whole exhibition! Could an English audience witness the scenes that are repeated every week in Madrid?—a universal burst of 'shame!' would follow the spectacle of a horse gored and bleeding, and actually treading upon his own entrails, while he gallops round the arena: even the appearance of the goaded bull could not be borne,—panting, covered with wounds and blood, lacerated by darts, and yet brave and resolute to the end.

"The spectacle continued two hours and a half; and during that time there were seven bulls killed, and six horses. When the last bull was despatched, the

people immediately rushed into the arena, and the carcass was dragged out amid the most deafening shouts."—*Spain in* 1830, vol. i. p. 191.

"A few weeks afterwards, I was present at another bull-fight. I have no intention of describing this also; but I gathered some information from it that had escaped me upon the former occasion. This time I paid more attention to the demeanour of the people than to the fight; and instead of securing a place in the boxes, I took my seat in the commonest division, that I might the better observe the character of the lower orders.

* * * * * *

"At this fight, all the bulls were indifferent excepting one; but he proved himself a perfect master of the science. He rushed first at one picador and then at the other, and overthrew both the horses and their riders; killing both horses, and wounding one of the picadores. Two fresh picadores immediately appeared; and these he served in a precisely similar way, but the overthrow was more tragical—one of the horses and his rider were raised fairly into the air, and the horse falling so as to crush the rider between its body and the fence, he was killed upon the spot. The bull was now master of the arena; he had cleared it of men—three horses lay dead—and he stood in the midst, lashing his tail, and looking round for another enemy. This was a time to observe the character of the people. When the unfortunate picador was killed, in place of a general exclamation of horror and loud expressions of pity, the universal cry was 'Que es bravo ese toro!' ('Ah, the admirable bull!') The whole

scene produced the most unbounded delight; the greater horror, the greater was the shouting, and the more vehement the expressions of satisfaction: I did not perceive a single female avert her head, or betray the slightest symptom of wounded feeling."

Vol. i. pp. 194, 5.

DRUNKENNESS.—Among all their faults, the Spaniards, happily, are not as a nation chargeable with this debasing vice; on the contrary, we believe they may be pronounced to be a very sober people. If such be truly the case, we should do well to endeavour, while congratulating ourselves upon our superiority as regards crime, to imitate them in this particular. Whatever other merits we may claim, we certainly have as yet no right to set up for being a sober people; although in this respect, as in most others, we trust we are improving.

POVERTY.—Poverty, which is at once a cause and an effect of crime, exists in Spain to a deplorable extent: everything, indeed, appears to have conspired to paralyze industry and to render of no avail the natural fertility of the soil. The havoc of war, the plunder committed by organised and powerful bodies of robbers, the rapacity of government and of its army of officers, the exclusion of foreign goods and the consequent shutting up of the foreign market, the ignorance of the people as to the best modes of agriculture, and, last of all, the want of capital—all these combine to produce squalid poverty in a land which ought to abound in wealth. Sometimes, indeed, from the extraordinary fertility of the soil, in spite of all obstacles, a great supply of food may be found in par-

ticular districts; but, for want of roads and protection against robbers, an abundance in one part of the country is of but little use in making up for the deficiency in another; and, in like manner, insecurity and want of capital prevent the excess of one year being stored up in readiness to meet the dearth of another. The consequence is most fearful, especially in the winter, which is often very severe. Pinched with cold and half-famished for want of food, the poor peasantry are exposed to the keenest suffering, until death itself puts an end to their agony. "In the dreadful winter of 1830," says Captain Cook, "vast numbers of people perished from cold and hunger." How indeed can people be protected against cold who have nothing better than *straw* for their fuel? "The country from Leon to Valladolid is amongst the most unpleasing to the eye in the whole of Spain; vast open plains, with miserable mud-built villages, form a monotony unrelieved by an agreeable object. The land is good in the greater part of it, and produces corn of all kinds, and excellent wine. All around these villages are tracts, now waste, which would grow the finest timber of every sort; whilst the miserable fires are made of straw smouldering under earth and other substances to retain the scanty heat. There is an almost total want of better fuel to resist the piercing cold of winter, which is extremely severe."

Cook's Sketches of Spain, vol. i. p. 89.

It would be well if those who declaim on the misery of the working classes of England—who represent the English peasantry as in a worse condition than any other peasantry in the world—would ponder a little

over facts of this kind, and inquire into the real condition of those whose situation they are in the habit of describing in such glowing terms. That the working classes of this country suffer from many hardships—that their patient toil is far from securing for them an adequate amount of the necessaries, comforts, and luxuries of life—we should be the last to deny: but to assert that their condition is as bad—nay, worse than that of the working classes in the other countries of Europe,—that, so far as they are concerned, our freer institutions, our superior knowledge, our greater wealth, all stand for nothing,—is in our opinion as gross, as absurd, and as mischievous a piece of gloomy exaggeration as ever was indulged in.

We conclude this section with a few more extracts from the works of Captain Cook and Mr. Inglis.

"The most arduous part of their duty [that of the intendentes] is to enforce the payment of arrears of taxes, which is a matter of extreme difficulty in a country where universal distress and inability to pay exist; where the people are naturally slow, and skilled by long practice in procrastination and evasion; where the fiscal is considered a common enemy, and every one is ready to assist his neighbour in eluding and defeating the claims of it."

Cook's Sketches in Spain, vol. ii. p. 44.

"Priego is a complete epitome of the country. The situation is beautiful, and the climate excellent. Although the foot of the Sierra, the garden produce is the earliest in the district. The wine is of the best quality, and was selling at five reals, about one shilling, the arroba of twenty-five pounds. Observing that our consumption was very great, I inquired the reason,

and the mozo informed me he was in the habit of bathing the mules' shoulders with it to refresh them in the evening. Corn was equally cheap; yet the poor people were starving, and only for the generosity of a public functionary in the place, many of them would have died from want in the preceding winter."

Cook's Sketches in Spain, vol. i. p. 44.

"The road [from Cuenca to Guadalaxara] was covered with wandering beggars and gipsies; and a party of the latter tribe were in prison, having been caught stealing a sheep and feasting upon it near the town."—Vol. i. p. 99.

"It is impossible to stir out of doors in Valencia without being beset by beggars, and by others also, more decent in appearance, resembling work-people: the latter are those persons who were formerly engaged in the silk manufactories, but who are now thrown out of work by the diminished trade that followed the loss of the colonies."

Spain in 1830, vol. ii. p. 331.

"We reached a small village called Parillena, in the neighbourhood of which I observed many hovels excavated in the clay banks, the wretched retreats of the miserable poor. It did not surprise me to see no fewer than five records of murder in this neighbourhood.

* * * * *

"All the clay banks in the neighbourhood of Guadix are excavated into human habitations: the first league from the town I counted one hundred and sixty of these miserable hovels; and some of their inmates, who looked from the outlets, exhibited the very acme of wretchedness."—Vol. ii. p. 259.

" The population of this town [Villena, in Murcia,] appeared to me to present a singularly disreputable appearance—beggarly, idle, ragged, and ruffian-like: this, I was informed, was to be attributed to the great plenty and cheapness of brandy, which had produced its usual effects upon those who indulged in it without moderation."—*Spain in* 1830, vol. ii. p. 314.

SUMMARY.

THE following positions appear to be, some wholly, and others partially, established by the facts and arguments brought forward in this portion of our work.

1st. Education—meaning thereby the development of the physical and mental powers, the formation of good habits, and the communication of knowledge—is productive of a balance of good; and the farther education can be carried,—that is, the greater the extent to which the powers can be developed, good habits formed, and knowledge communicated,—the greater the benefit that will arise.

2nd. Education in England, Scotland, and the north-eastern states of America, has made great progress during the last hundred years.

3rd. During the same period, and coincident with this improvement in the state of education, there has been a great increase in the wealth and comfort of the people of these countries, and in the average length of life; while, at the same time, crime, riots, and political tumults have in all these countries greatly diminished. In Scotland, pauperism and mendicity have also been much reduced; and in the north-eastern states of America drunkenness has much abated, and is now rapidly disappearing.

4th. Education has acted as a powerful cause in producing these amendments.

5th. *So* powerful is education as a means of national improvement, that, with comparatively few exceptions,

the different countries of the world, if arranged according to the state of education in them, will be found to be arranged also according to wealth, morals, and general happiness: and not only does this rule hold good as respects a country taken as a whole, but it will generally apply to the different parts of the same country. Thus in England, education is in the best state in the northern agricultural district, and in the worst state in the southern agricultural district and the agricultural parts of the midland district; while in the great towns and other manufacturing places education is in an intermediate state; at the same time the condition of the people, and the extent of crime and violence among them, follow a like order.

6th. Education, though much improved in this country, is still very defective, even where it exists in the best state.

7th. Among other benefits arising from education are increased security of life and property, increased powers of production, and a prevention of wasteful and pernicious expenditure.

8th. These and other benefits thus produced always more than counterbalance the sacrifices necessary for obtaining at least a small amount of education. It is therefore wise in a community, however poor, to give some amount of education to the rising generation.

9th. With every increase in the wealth of a community, it is wise to improve the quality and extend the range of popular education.

10th. The wealth of this country is at the present time such as to render it politic in the nation to give to the whole body of the people a thoroughly good education;

commencing with infancy, and extending, in some of its provisions, over the whole period of life;—an education which shall afford opportunities for the development of the various powers of the body and mind, and the cultivation of peculiar talent of every kind — calling into play the best feelings of our nature, and securing the formation of good habits—giving a knowledge of the causes of disease, both of the body and the mind, and pointing out the means of preserving a state of vigorous health in both,—explaining the interest and duty of every man as a member of society, and acquainting him with the laws he is called upon to obey, and the principles on which those laws are founded.

11th. The kind of education at present afforded to the bulk of the English people falls far short of this; while there are many thousand children growing up without any education whatever.

12th. The present provision for education in this country should therefore be greatly extended.

13th. It is wise in society itself to provide for the education of the people, instead of relying on individual effort, as in the case of food and clothing, because, unlike the desire for these necessaries, a demand for education presupposes a considerable degree of intelligence. Indeed, before there can exist a demand for that extensive kind of education which it is the interest of society that a child should receive, the parent must have attained a very high degree of intelligence and knowledge; much higher than can be reasonably expected, except in instances where the parent himself had been very well educated. Moreover, the generality of parents are without the means of affording such an education, even when they have the

knowledge to appreciate its value, and the virtue to make the necessary sacrifice.

14th. Assuming that it is wise in society to provide for the education of those whom the inability, neglect, or perverseness of their parents would otherwise doom to ignorance, it is better that the provision should be *national*, rather than dependent upon private payments and private charity; because, among other reasons, education upon a great scale, and upon a uniform system, can by good organization be rendered better and cheaper than upon a small scale and on a diversity of plans;—further, because this superior cheapness will greatly increase the number of those who receive education for their family as a benefit fairly purchased, instead of being indebted for it to the bounty of their wealthier neighbours; and because, lastly, the cost of the education of those children whose parents are unable to pay even the small amount required, instead of falling upon a comparatively small number of benevolent individuals, will be divided among all whose interests are thereby promoted.

APPENDIX.

No. I. — *Warwickshire.*

County Asylum for the Education and Reform of Juvenile Offenders.

1. Has the experiment succeeded?—This is evinced by the answers to the queries.

2. When was the school established?—In the year 1817.

3. How many children have passed through it?—164.

4. How many of these children appear to have been permanently reformed?—93.

5. What is the evidence for believing that their reform is permanent?—Their continuance in respectable employ.

6. How many of those not permanently reformed have been convicted of offences subsequently to their leaving the institution?—Since the commencement, 23 have been dismissed for bad conduct, and 48 have absconded: from the above numbers 19 have been since transported, as stated to the governor of the asylum. Favourable accounts have been received of improved conduct in many that have absconded.

7. Present number of children?—15.

8. Present funds of the school?

£1500 in 3½ per cents.	52	10
Canal share . .	12	0
Annual subscriptions	239	2
	£303	12

9. Average yearly cost of each child, including food, clothing, rent, cost of management, and expenses of every kind?—20*l.* 17*s.* 6*d.* each boy.

10. Age at which the children usually enter?—From 14 to 17.

11. Average time they remain in the school?—From fifteen to eighteen months.

12. State of the children (when they enter the school) in morals, intellect, knowledge, habits, &c.?—Generally deficient in morals, most of them without religious instruction, except what they have received in gaol. Acute in intellect; no regular habits.

13. State in which the children usually leave the school, particularizing as before?—Reformed in morals, and impressed with habits of industry, and instructed in trades.

14. System on which the school is conducted, particularly as regards inducing habits of industry, prudence, and general morality?—The routine of the establishment is preserved without deviation from its rules of work and instruction. See answers to queries 15, 17, 18.

15. Time given to labour?—Nine hours in the day.

16. What trades, &c. are usually taught, and how far do the children become masters of them?—The trades of shoemaking and tailoring. The boys generally acquire sufficient knowledge in them before leaving to obtain situations, without premiums, and others obtain situations as journeymen.

17. Time given to ordinary education, as reading, writing, &c.?—Two hours in the day.

18. What is the discipline of the school, including a notice of the rewards and punishments in use?—By

the prescribed rules, the punishments are, confinement, and bread and water diet;—a stripe with the cane is sometimes necessary. The boys are allowed a penny in the shilling on the value of their work. Pecuniary rewards are given by the committee to the most deserving.

19. General conduct of the children whilst at school?—General conduct orderly, being under the constant inspection of the governor or his assistant.

20. How far is classification, either as regards moral condition, or otherwise, attempted? — No classification has been attempted, the number never exceeding twenty.

21. Is intercourse with parents or others out of the school allowed?—Only by permission of the governor in urgent cases.

22. To what degree do the children become affectionate and grateful?—Many of the boys show their sense of gratitude after a short residence; and many who have left it, have called to express their thankfulness for having had the opportunity of reformation and instruction.

23. Are situations readily procured for them on their leaving the institution? — Situations on particular inquiries have been found for all the boys who have been qualified to go out, as shoemakers and tailors.

24. For what term are they bound apprentices?—Few have been apprentices: having partly learned their trades, they receive wages.

25. Is any, and what premium paid to the master? —No premium has been paid by the committee, except in one or two instances. The boys are always

clothed on leaving the institution, and a Prayer-book and a Bible given to them.

26. What provision exists for maintaining a partial superintendence of the children after they have been placed out as apprentices?—After engaging with a master for one or two years, under the direction of the committee, the master in cases of irregularity applies to the committee to exercise their authority as magistrates.

27. What is in fact the conduct of the children subsequently to their leaving the institution?—There is scarcely an exception to the number, viz. 93, as stated in the 4th query, of improper conduct; and there are some of that number now living in respectability and opulence.

T. R. BROMFIELD, Honorary Secretary.
JOSEPH JOHNSON, Governor.

June 2, 1834.

		ther dead		theft	ham	months				to a tailor		
W. Newton	14	father dd. mother turned him out	no instr.	petty theft	Birmingham	3 mo.	1819	0	6	0	dismissed	letter from himself from N. S. Wales	1823
J. L.	14	father and mother dead	no instr.	petty theft	Birmingham	3 mo.	1819	2	0	0	sent to a situation in Hants	by a letter doing well	1827
W. Rushton	14	father dd. mother on the parish	no instr.	petty theft	Birmingham	senthere instead of com.	1820	0	3	0	dismissed	become steady, and regrets being sent away	1826
J. Baker	17	father and mother dead	no instr.	petty theft	Birmingham	6 mo.	1820	1	0	0	placed 51 weeks to a shoemaker	transported	1826
H. W.	16	father and mother respectable	education neglected	house breakg.	Birmingham	9 mo.	1820	2	0	0	went to a place for 2 years	very respectable	1827
George Sambrook	16	father and mother dead	no instr.	house breakg.	Birmingham	2 years	1820	2	3	0	placed 51 weeks to a shoemaker	—	—
J. Highway	16	father dd. mother deser. him	no instr.	petty theft	Birmingham	3 mo.	1820	0	2	0	ran away	transported	1824
W. B.	13	father dd. mother a pauper	no instr.	petty theft	Birmingham	1 mo.	1820	2	0	0	placed 51 weeks to a blacksmith	his character inquired after	1823
T. H.	16	father a soldier mother dead	could read	petty theft	Birmingham	no bill	1820	2	0	0	placed 51 weeks to a shoemaker	married, respectable	1826

Name.	Age.	Parentage.	Education.	Crime.	Place of Crime.	Sentence.	When admitted.	Length of Stay. y. m. w	How discharged.	In what Circumstances.	When last heard of.
H. S.	17	father a soldier mother dead	could read and write	petty theft	Birmingham	no bill	1820	2 0 0	placed 51 weeks to a glazier	married, respectable	1827
E. F.	14	father and mother dead	could read and write	petty theft	Birmingham	no bill	1820	2 6 0	placed 51 weeks to a tailor	in Queen's Bays	1826
J. F. W.	14	natural child	no instr.	petty theft	Birmingham	6 mo.	1820	3 0 0	apprenticed to a boot-maker	going on well	1825
B. S.	14	father no control, mother dd.	no instr.	petty theft	Birmingham	6 mo.	1820	3 0 0	placed 51 weeks to a shoemaker	died from a wound respectable	1827
W. W.	14	father and mother thieves	could read	pickg. pockts.	Atherstone	6 mo.	1821	2 6 0	restored to his friends, reformed	in the Marines	1824
E. B.	17	father a soldier mother dead	could read	petty theft	Birmingham	3 mo.	1822	2 0 0	placed 51 weeks to a shoemaker	at his trade, respectable	1827
R. R.	15	father and mother honest	could read and write	petty theft	Birmingham	3 mo.	1822	1 0 0	sent home to his friends	transported	1825
George Harris	16	father and mother dead	no instr.	pickg. pockts.	Birmingham	4 mo.	1822	0 8 0	dismissed	transported	1826
W. P.	16	father and mother dead	no instr.	petty theft	Birmingham	3 mo.	1822	0 9 0	ran away	very steady labourer	1826

J. W.	18	father and mother living	no instr.	petty theft	Birmingham	3 mo.	1822	0 3 0	ran away	seen at work	1824
C. B.	14	father & mother poor & honest	could read and write	misdemeanor	Southam	sut. here instead of com.	1822	1 0 0	placed 51 weeks to a tailor	in the Marines	1826
W. S.	11	father no control, mother dd.	no instr.	petty theft	Birmingham	3 mo.	1822	3 0 0	placed to a tailor	at his trade, doing well	1827
W. G.	16	father a lab'rer mother dead	could read	no crime	recommended by a subscriber		1822	3 0 0	placed as a servant	working as lab'rer, respectable	1826
Edward Coleman	16	father baskt.mak. mother dead	no instr.	felony	Birmingham	12 mo.	1822	0 0 3	ran away	transported	1825
J. E.	17	father dd. mother charwom.	could read and write	petty theft	Birmingham	6 mo.	1822	2 0 0	placed 51 weeks to a shoemaker	in a confidential situation	1827
J. H.	13	father dd. mother living	could read and write	petty theft	Birmingham	6 mo.	1822	3 0 0	died of a decline	a good Christian	1826
Isaac Parton	16	father and mother respectable	could read and write	petty theft	Birmingham	3 mo.	1822	0 9 0	sent to his friends	tried at Warwick	1824
J. S.	10	father dd. mother living	no instr.	no crime	recommended by a subscriber		1822	now in Asylum.	—	—	—

Name.	Age.	Parentage.	Education.	Crime.	Place of Crime.	Sentence.	When admitted.	Length of Stay. y. m. w.	How discharged.	In what Circumstances.	When last heard of.
J. T.	14	natural child mother dead	no instruction	petty theft	Dunchurch	not prosecuted	1822	3 0 0	ran away	at his parish	1826
J. H.	14	father a lab'rer mother dead	no instr.	petty theft	Birmingham	3 mo.	1822	2 0 0	placed 51 weeks to a shoemaker	very steady at his trade	1826
Thomas Badkin	12	father and mother thieves	no instr.	petty theft	Birmingham	3 mo.	1822	1 0 0	ran away	transported	1826
T. W.	16	father dd. mother poor and honest	could read	rob. his mother	Birmingham	from P. Office Birming	1822	0 1 0	dismissed	a bad character	1826
W. H.	13	father wire-w'kr mother dead	could read	stealg. money	Birmingham	no bill	1822	2 0 0	restored to his friends, reformed	a steady labourer	1827
J. Y.	14	father dd. mother charwom.	could read	pilfering	Leek Wotton	sent by a sub.	1823	1 6 0	sent to a situation	going on well	1826
Joseph Badkin	10	father and mother thieves	no instr.	petty theft	Birmingham	from P. Office Birming	1823	1 0 0	ran away	transported	1825
J. G.	15	father & mother respectable	could read	petty theft	Birmingham	3 mo.	1823	1 0 0	placed 51 weeks to a shoemaker	in 23rd Light Dragoons	1826
John Wilde	15	father dd. mo. a bad character	no instr.	petty theft	Birmingham	6 mo.	1823	0 9 0	ran away	transported	1825

		ther living	struction	theft	ham	months					
A. Holloway	19	father and mother dead	could read	petty theft	Birmingham	12 mo.	1823	0 2 0	ran away	transported	1826
W. G.	14	father and mother thieves	no instr.	petty theft	Birmingham	3 mo.	1823	0 9 0	ran away	transported	1825
Thomas Wink	16	father and mother dead	could read	petty theft	Birmingham	3 mo.	1823	1 0 0	dismissed	in prison	1827
M. King	17	father dd. mother living	no instr.	petty theft	Birmingham	6 mo.	1823	0 1 0	dismissed	transported	1825
J. P.	11	father & mother respectable	could read	petty theft	Warwick	6 mo.	1823	3 0 0	sent to his friends	in prison	1827
J. Beards	14	father living mo. taught him to stl.	no instr.	petty theft	Birmingham	3 mo.	1823	0 3 0	ran away	transported	1825
William Gold	13	father and mother dead	could read	petty theft	Cubbington	snt here instead of com.	1823	1 2 0	sent to his parish	an indifferent character	1826
W. P.	19	father dd. mother living	could read	petty theft	Birmingham	3 mo.	1824	10 0	ran away	married, maintains himself by labour	1826
J. M.	14	father a soldier mother living	no instr.	stealg. money	Birmingham	6 mo.	1824	1 9 0	placed 51 weeks to a shoemaker	doing well	1826

Name.	Age.	Parentage.	Education.	Crime.	Place of Crime.	Sentence.	When admitted.	Length of Stay.	How discharged.	In what Circumstances.	When last heard of.
W. B.	14	father and mother dead	could read	petty theft	Birmingham	3 months	1824	*y. m. w.* 0 9 0	ran away	—	—
J. S.	14	father & mother respectable	could read	petty theft	Birmingham	snt from Sessions	1824	0 8 0	ran away	re-admitted	1827
T. W.	14	father and mother dead	no instr.	petty theft	Birmingham	3 mo.	1824	0 6 0	ran away	transported	1826
W. W.	11	father and mother dead	could read and write	propen. to steal	Willoughby	sent by a Magistrate	1824	2 0 0	sent to his relations	at work	1827
G. T.	13	father & mother respectable	could read	ran frm situa.	Birmingham	sent by a Magistrate	1824	1 6 0	placed to his father a hatter	re-admitted	1827
T. D.	14	father and mother dead	no instr.	vagrancy	Birmingham	sent by a Magistrate	1824	3 0 0	now in the Asylum	—	—
J. K.	10	father bad character mo. dead	no instr.	vagrancy	Birmingham	sent by a Magistrate	1824	3 0 0	now in the Asylum	—	—
W. J.	11	a natural child mother ——	no instr.	stealg. money	Birmingham	rec. by Judge	1824	3 0 0	now in the Asylum	—	—
J. W.	14	father and mother dead	no instr.	petty theft	Birmingham	3 mo.	1824	0 6 0	ran away	transported	1826

		mother poor									
John Callow	14	father dead, mo. respectable	no instr.	petty theft	Birmingham	3 mo.	1824	0 9 0	placed in a situa. for two years	transported	1825
J. T.	16	father & mother respectable	could read	petty theft	Birmingham	3 mo.	1824	0 2 0	ran away	in Manchester	1826
J. G.	12	father and mother tramps	no instr.	petty theft	Atherstone	3 mo.	1824	1 0 0	ran away	wishes to return	1826
J. A.	14	father dd. mother a pauper	no instr.	petty theft	Birmingham	6 mo.	1824	2 2 0	now in the Asylum	—	—
G. Wilcox	14	father dd. mother a pauper	no instr.	petty theft	Birmingham	3 mo.	1824	0 9 0	ran away	tried at Warwick	1826
J. G.	15	father and mother living	could read	petty theft	Birmingham	1 week	1825	1 9 0	placed 51 weeks to a shoemaker	doing well	1827
J. H.	14	father & mother low characters	could read	petty theft	Birmingham	1 week	1825	0 1 0	ran away	at large in Birmingham	1826
J. B.	13	father and mother tipplers	no instr.	vagrancy	Birmingham	snt from Police Office	1825	2 0 0	now in the Asylum	—	—
J. T.	12	father and mother dead	could read	petty theft	Birmingham	3 mo.	1825	2 0 0	now in the Asylum	—	—

Name.	Age.	Parentage.	Education.	Crime.	Place of Crime.	Sentence.	When admitted.	Length of Stay.	How discharged.	In what Circumstances.	When last heard of.
John Barton	15	father and mother tipplers	could read	petty theft	Birmingham	snt here instead of pros.	1825	*y. m. w.* 1 6 0	dismissed	in prison for vagrancy	1827
R. H.	17	father and mother dead	could read	petty theft	Birmingham	3 mo.	1825	1 3 0	placed 51 weeks to a tailor	doing well	1827
W. W.	15	father dd. mother living	could read	petty theft	Birmingham	no bill	1825	0 7 0	ran away	travelling with a hawker	1826
W.W.W.	15	father a drunkd. mother dead	could read and write	no crime	Wellesbourn	rec. to Asy.	1825	1 0 0	now in the Asylum	—	—
J. F.	15	father dd. mother living	no instr.	no crime	Sutton Coldfield	rec. to Asy.	1825	0 1 0	ran away	—	—
J. P.	17	father and mother dead	no instr.	stealg. money	Birmingham	6 mo.	1825	10 0	dismissed	called at Asylum	1826
J. C.	13	father a lab'rer mother living	could read	petty theft	Birmingham	no bill	1826	10 0	now in the Asylum	—	—
J. B.	14	father and mother dead	no instr.	petty theft	Birmingham	3 mo.	1826	0 3 0	ran away	at large in Birmingham	1827
J. S.	16	father & mother respectable	could read and write	stealg. money	Leamington	no bill	1826	0 6 0	now in the Asylum	—	—

J. W.	16	father and mother dead	could read and write	petty theft	Birmingham	3 mo.	1826	0 6 0	now in the Asylum	—	—
J. R.	17	father and mother dead	could read and write	petty theft	Wootton Wawen	3 mo.	1826	0 4 0	now in the Asylum	—	—
W. T.	17	father dd. mother respectable	could read	petty theft	Birmingham	no bill	1827	0 2 0	now in the Asylum	—	—
J. R.	15	father and mo. poor and honest	no instr.	petty theft	Birmingham	no bill	1827	0 1 0	now in the Asylum	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

Total 88. 54, no education. 32, father and mother dead. 5, one parent at least drunken. 5, pauper parents. 11, parent thief or otherwise of bad character. 3, deserted.

No. II.

QUERIES AND REPLIES RESPECTING THE STATE OF EDUCATION AT LEEDS.

1. What do you consider to be the general state of education in your neighbourhood?—No answer.

2. About what portion of the rising generation, including all ranks and classes, is receiving education of some kind at the present time, distinguishing those in infant schools, Sunday schools, and day schools supported by public or private charity?—In the borough of Leeds about one-eighth of the population is receiving education, as per annexed statement.

Population in 1831 was 123,393.

21 day schools with	2341	scholars (including several schools connected with factories).
1 infant	150	
81 Sunday	13,206	
103	15,697	

N. B. The total is not quite accurate, as many of the day scholars attend Sunday schools, and are therefore returned twice. The returns were obtained in 1833.

3. To what extent is education professedly carried in the different kinds of schools? How long do the children usually remain, and what do they in fact generally acquire in infant schools?—In infant schools, reading, writing, geography, natural history, &c. are taught. They remain till seven years old; and they acquire generally a smattering of the above branches.

4. In Sunday schools?—In *most* Sunday schools *reading* and religious instruction: in some writing is

taught on a week-day evening, and in a *very* few on Sunday. They remain three or four years.

5. In public day schools?—See No. 3. They remain one to two years in the schools, and acquire a tolerable knowledge of the most useful branches.

6. In boarding schools, and other schools for the middle and upper classes?—No answer.

7. What portion of the rising generation do you expect will grow up without any education whatever? —No answer.

8. About what portion of the adult population is unable to read? unable to write?—No answer.

9. About what portion of the adult population has received an education extending beyond mere reading and writing?—No answer.

What is the average yearly expense of the education given in the different kinds of schools, viz.—

10. Infant schools?—See report of the infant school.

11. Sunday schools?—A few pence per annum only, most of the teachers being gratuitous.

12. Public day schools?—In the Lancasterian school the expense is 5*s*. 5*d*. per annum. National school 4*s*. 4*d*. The free grammar school has 75 boys at present. Any boy of Leeds parents may, on application, be admitted; but, with the exception of a very little English grammar in the lowest class, the only things taught are Latin, Greek, and mathematics. The head-master has a large income, and is generally an able scholar.

13. Day schools for the middle and upper classes? —On this I can give no definite information. Some young boys, relations of mine, go to one of the best,

and the charge per annum is 7*l.* each, exclusive of languages, which are *extras.*

14. Boarding schools for the middle and upper classes, including the cost of board?—No answer.

15. Have proprietary schools been established in your district? if so, to what extent?—There is one proprietary school at Wakefield, just built, and which will be opened in a few months. Capital 6000*l.* in 240 shares of 25*l.* Fifteen directors to be annually chosen from shareholders. Three masters already chosen, who are men of high acquirements. The number of scholars will be very large, probably; as each shareholder may send his own sons to school, and a grandson, nephew, or stranger for every share he holds beyond the first.

16. What advantages are derived from the system of proprietary schools? pecuniary? educational? miscellaneous?—As this school is not yet opened, and there is none else near here, I know not.

17. What progress has education made in your district during the last thirty or forty years?—Considerable progress.

18. What effects do you consider to have been produced by this progress in education, considered particularly under the following heads, viz. general morals, crime, insubordination, riots, incendiarism, &c.; wealth and comforts of the mass of the people, pauperism, drunkenness, superstition, &c.?—An improvement on the whole, particularly as to general morals, crime, with the exception of drunkenness, riots, &c. and a decided increase in the wealth and comforts of the mass of the people.

19. How far are the educated portions of the people superior to the uneducated portions, particularly as regards the heads just enumerated?—On the whole, very superior.

20. How far are the workmen desirous of obtaining education for their children, and to what extent would they avail themselves of a national provision for education, provided it were not compulsory?—Some parents are indifferent about it, from the circumstance of their children's labour in factories being so soon a source of income. So far as it did not interfere with their interest as above, they would avail themselves of a provision for national education.

21. Would a measure for instituting national education be popular among the middle and upper classes, or are these classes fearful or jealous of the spread of knowledge (especially political knowledge) among the masses of the people?—I think the upper classes are not *generally* fearful of the spread of knowledge among the people, but rather favourable to it, as a safeguard against the effects of political or other excitement.

No. III.—MECHANICS' INSTITUTIONS.

REPLIES TO GENERAL QUERIES.

Liverpool.

1st. June 1825.

2nd. In the course of the first half-year 450 members enrolled their names.

3rd. In donations and subscriptions about 800*l.* per annum.

4th. 1206 members, March 1835.—Members 21*s.* per annum; sons of members 5*s.* per annum; apprentices of members 8*s.* per annum.—About 750*l.* per annum.

5th & 6th. From 1825 till about 1827, the Liverpool Mechanics' Institution progressed a little; from thence till 1830 it rapidly declined; from 1830 until the present time its success has exceeded the most sanguine expectations of its friends, and its prospects for the future are most encouraging: the only obstacle it has to contend with is the want of a large fund to build an institution capable of accommodating its members.

7th. Twice a week, say Tuesdays and Saturdays. Scientific subjects excite *by far* the greatest interest.

8th. Refer to printed Reports sent herewith.

9th. Yes. Refer to printed Reports sent herewith.

10th. In almost all cases where there has been a regularity of attendance. But master tradesmen have a great dislike to the education afforded by Mechanics' Institutions; they seem afraid that the secrets of their respective trades will be divulged in the mutual instruction classes, and therefore they are reluctant to confess that the members of the institu-

tion are superior. One eminent house here, Messrs. Fawcett and Preston, oblige *all their apprentices* to attend the schools of the institution, and influence their workmen as much as they can to attend.

11th. None.

12th. They are decidedly more steady and intellectual.

13th. There has not been a single instance of a member of the Liverpool Institution having been ever charged with any criminal offence.

14th. They are most temperate; only two persons have been seen in the institution in a state approaching to intoxication for the last five years.

15th. No answer.

16th. Many of them have, and it is hoped that such an influence is exerted for a good purpose.

17th. *None;* and out of 1200 members only two were actually known as belonging to any of the Trades' Unions so prevalent here the year before last.

18th. The labour and expense incurred by *individuals* in establishing the Liverpool Institution has been very great; and few that have engaged in the task would have undertaken it, had they known the difficulties that they were obliged to encounter. They have in some degree been rewarded by the great benefit they have conferred upon the working classes, and the stimulus the system has given to education in general, even affecting the highest classes in society, and they look forward to important results that must follow what has been already done: there cannot be a doubt upon the mind of any unprejudiced person, that the general establishment of such institutions would be, beyond *almost all other improvements*, beneficial.

19th. No answer.

Derby.

1st. April 11th, 1825.

2nd. 119 honorary members, 247 ordinary ditto, and apprentices.

3rd. 1st Clause.

Honorary members 1*l.* or upwards.

Ordinary ditto 10*s.*

Ditto ditto 6*s.* apprentices.

2nd Clause.

Total annual income 1st year of			
Ordinary members and apprentices	£73	15	9
Honorary members, subscriptions, and donations . . .	452	12	6
Total	£526	8	3

4th. 1st Clause.

44 Honorary members.

311 Ordinary ditto, and apprentices.

Honorary members' annual subscription 1*l.* or upwards.

Ordinary 10*s.*

Ditto 6*s.* apprentices.

2nd Clause.

Present total annual income of			
Honorary members . . .	£52	12	0
Ordinary ditto, and apprentices .	88	11	6
Total	£141	3	6

5th. Eminently successful.

6th. Present state flourishing, and prospects favourable.

7th. Occasionally, during the winter quarters; subjects, natural philosophy and history.

8th. The following classes are formed, viz;

Figure and anatomical drawing.
Literature and belles lettres.
Chemistry.
Scholastic instruction.
Music.

Each two evenings per week, all well attended.

9th. Yes.

10th. Unequivocally and comparatively speaking, in a great degree.

11th. None.

12th. Particularly so.

13th. None to our knowledge.

14th. Exemplary.

15th. Particularly temperate.

16th. Many instances have been observed in which good examples of members have produced very beneficial effects upon their fellow-members.

17th. 1st Clause.

By no means.

2nd Clause.

No cases are known to the committee.

18th. 1st Clause.

Decidedly so; the present state of this institution fully realizing the expectations of its first founders.

2nd Clause.

We are fully persuaded there would, and that mechanics' institutes are decidedly favourable to the promotion of civilized subordination.

19th. Mechanics' institutions should be provided with rooms for separate and distinct classes in the arts and sciences, and particularly with the uncontrolled use of a good lecture-room, and should be exempt from the payment of all taxes.

General Remarks.

On the first establishment of this institution, the members had no other place of meeting than the Lancasterian school-room, which they rented for their evening business, and in which their library was fixed. The members subsequently having found great inconvenience from the accommodation being ill suited to the wants of both institutions (viz. the Lancasterian school and Mechanics' institution), and being desirous of forming separate and distinct classes in the different branches of art and science, set on foot a public subscription for the purchase of their present premises, containing large and suitable rooms for the accommodation of their classes, library, reading-room, committee-room, laboratory, and school-room, and also adjoining ground, on which they intend hereafter to build a large lecture-room. In the space of a year and a half from the purchase of their premises, with the donations and subscriptions of their honorary members and friends, they have been enabled to pay off within a trifle the whole of the purchase-money (1500*l.*), besides having augmented their library, and furnished the members generally with facilities for improvement, commensurate with their numbers, and adequate to ensure a very general and steady attendance.

For the erection of the lecture-room contemplated, it is intended to have a mortgage on the premises, and again to appeal to their friends for their assistance towards attaining so desirable an object as a lecture-room.

The friends of the institution are now fully aware of the benefits which have resulted from the establish-

ment and arrangement of separate classes for distinct branches of study, and the appropriation of a good and comfortable reading-room, in which are taken all the principal periodicals (but no newspapers). This branch of reading has been and is particularly attractive, and is believed to be highly beneficial, being confined more particularly to works of literature and the arts and sciences. They also feel persuaded that the uncontrolled use of a good lecture-room will be a powerful auxiliary in promoting the objects of the Mechanics' institution.

Birmingham.

1st. In 1825.

2nd. It gradually rose to nearly 1000, but rapidly sank again. In 1830, the number of quarterly subscribers was less than 100.*

3rd. Honorary members 21*s.* per annum; general subscribers 3*s.* per quarter, raised to 4*s.* per quarter on renting the theatre of the Philosophical Institution as lecture-room; but again reduced to 3*s.* per quarter in 1831, as the increased subscription operated unfavourably on the numbers.

* In reference to the second question, the institution at its commencement was supported by a considerable number of the "respectable inhabitants" of the town, technically so called; and their efforts were crowned with success in bringing together a large number of the other class—the quarterly subscribers; but all parties were inexperienced in the management of such institutions, and the honoraries were apt to take offence at some mistaken views which the others seemed to have exhibited, and, with the exception of one or two, all the gentlemen forsook the institution.

Great expenses were also incurred in the obtaining of popular courses of lectures, which could not be permanently supported; and a debt was incurred, which long prevented the possibility of liberal expenditure.

4th. Generally from 250 to 350 at 3*s.* per quarter, and about 45 honoraries at 21*s.* per annum. There is no other source of income. Therefore, taking the subscribers at 250, and honoraries at 45, it is about 200*l.* per annum.*

5th. Various; but the classes and lectures have been always continued, and the library gradually and slowly increased.

6th. I consider it as on the advance, and as obtaining more and more favourable consideration from the inhabitants generally.

7th. Weekly. Experimental natural philosophy usually preferred; but lectures on history are well received. *Popular lectures on Poetry and the Drama have been most of all attractive.*—Writing, arithmetic, drawing, 90 to 100 each; mathematics, Latin, and French, 20 to 25 each.

8th. Drawing may be said perhaps to be studied in reference to the manufacturing operations of the town, but I question whether *profession or occupation* be often considered by the youths who attend the classes. In fact, I consider these questions as arising out of *an erroneous conception of the tendency of mechanics' institutions.* I advocate them as the means of elevating the human race, not of making them more skilful at the lathe or the file. I do not know that our members are distinguished for their skill; in truth, the *smaller part* only are actually "workmen." Assuredly, the

* There is some addition from fines, and from casual attendants at the lectures, who pay 1s. each lecture; but these are usually small.—Mr. C. Pemberton's Dramatic Illustrations brought in about 20*l.* in shillings.

well-educated person is most likely to excel in any pursuit he undertakes; but we have not sought for instances. We sometimes hear that the lads of our institution are conceited, and the like; but this I do not much regard. As information gradually spreads, it will cease to form a distinction which can excite vanity.

9th. I have not heard of any such instances. If I did, I should redouble my efforts for the extension of such institutions, in order to improve the moral sense by enlarging the intellect.

10th. Generally favourable; but then, as above, our members at present are not of the actual operative classes generally. The influence of the institution, I trust, is slowly extending downwards: many of the boys in the schools are apprentices to laborious employments.

11th. The numbers are scarcely sufficient to render the influence perceptible: and see last answer.

12th. We do not destroy machinery in Birmingham. Our machinery, at present, assists the human labourer, —is not a substitute so as to render him "an over population." From what I observe, I do not think that many of our members formed part of the "Trades' Unions;" chiefly, I think, from the cause before assigned, that generally our members are not actual workmen.

13th. To both parts of this question I should answer unhesitatingly in the affirmative. Discouraging incidents frequently occur, from causes which may be usually traced to want of information; but such instances only show the necessity for greater exertions. In truth, as to the working people, if they get knowledge, it must be crammed down their throats.

14th. The establishment of news and reading rooms, and removal of those prudish restrictions which keep out of our libraries some of the most interesting portions of our periodical literature, under the pretence of their "political tendency;" also the encouragement of frequent social and recreative meetings, as for music and dancing, conducted on a scale of combined economy and elegance, and generally ministering more to the specific enjoyment of the members, and promoting a mixture of the sexes: thus rendering the mechanics' institution a substitute for the attraction of the public-house, whether for the obtaining of political knowledge, or for innocent recreation and social communion.

I am here recommending that our 3*s.* per quarter be considered as expended in the lectures (to which the ticket is transferable), the library, and in eligibility to the news-room and classes. The privileges of attendance on these latter to be purchased by a small additional quarterage, say 6*d.* to each class, and 1*s.* 6*d.* to the news-room. Thus, a person may pay 5*s.* per quarter; but he has for that his son's tuition in the various branches of liberal education, the family is edified by the library books, and himself or wife, &c. has admission to the lectures by the transferable ticket.

It is highly desirable that some of the honorary subscribers also give their attendance at lectures, &c.; their presence is acceptable, and gives a degree of respectability to the meetings. It must, however, be added, that, here at least, such persons are seldom seen at the meetings of any kind.

Leeds.

1st. In 1824.

2nd. 14 members, and 136 subscribers.

3rd. The members paid each 2*l.* and subscribed 10*s.* annually; the subscribers paid each 10*s.* annually. Benjamin Gott, Esq. the president, gave 250*l.*, six other gentlemen gave 20*l.* each, and six others 10*l.* each, making a total of 848*l.*

4th. At the half year ending December 21st, 1834, the number of members were 102, and of subscribers 80; the subscription of each as at the commencement; the present total income 91*l.*

5th. Upon the whole successful.

6th. The present great declension of the Mechanics' Institution is to be attributed to the establishment of a Literary Institution, in which upwards of 800 persons have enrolled themselves as its members; which has drawn off from us many of our most benefited, attentive, and regular members and subscribers. But, however our institution may have been injured by it, it holds out this cheering prospect, that the desire for knowledge is on the increase, and that such an institution, being established for the benefit of a class one remove from the mechanics', must react upon them, and ultimately excite in them a strong desire for knowledge; and that at no distant time we shall have both a large and an effective Mechanics' Institution.

7th. Every winter from twelve to twenty, or more frequently when the funds of the institution would admit. Chemistry, from its great practical application here.

8th. Mathematics, and drawing, consisting of me-

chanical, architectural, and perspective: there was a chemical class, which was abandoned last year for want of a teacher.—Thed rawing class.

9th. Such as each thinks will promote his welfare or gratify his present taste. The benefit has been general and diffusive: particular cases—a few of the more striking must suffice.—Two brothers, the elder of whom stated, in his introduction to a course of lectures on pneumatic chemistry, delivered before the institution, that at nine years of age, without parents, and could scarcely read, he had to commence getting his own living. He was for many years a gentleman's servant. He now keeps a chemist and druggist's shop, and besides is a manufacturing chemist. His brother is the manager of the Bradford gas-works; the first chemical knowledge of both was acquired in this institution.—A weaver who got a situation as time-keeper at Fenton Murray and Co.'s, by availing himself of the benefits to be derived from this institution, qualified himself to superintend its mathematical and drawing classes, which he resigned on being taken in as a partner in the above firm. A stuff-presser, who had gained his knowledge under the fostering care of the institution, succeeded him as teacher of the drawing class, and he superintended the chemical class: he is now partner and manager of a firm for the dyeing, pressing, and finishing of stuff goods.

10th. I should say, most decidedly in all cases where it attracted them to continue for a sufficient time to become imbued with its tastes and to thirst for its spring.

11th. No case has come to my knowledge.

12th. Yes.

13th. None.

14th. Most exemplary.

15th. Can a sober, skilful, and intelligent workman be other than a good husband and father?

16th. Does not mental superiority in all cases give a decided influence to its possessor? and can men of the above character exert any influence but what is beneficial, not only over their fellow-workmen, but over all within the circle of that influence?

17th. To the former part of the question, No! To the latter part, it must be admitted that two cases have occurred. The most promising young man that the institution has trained became secretary to the Short Time Committee, which committee succeeded in getting the last Factory Act: but I believe the temporary elevation will prove to him a permanent fall. The other, a very active and intelligent member, in a note to me vindicating his conduct, thus writes: "I was elected by my fellow-workmen to fill a situation of importance in a trade union, whose object was to prevent the reduction of wages, and to obtain a more perfect equalization of them amongst the artisans employed in the dyeing and finishing of stuff goods."

18th. I do. If knowledge has transformed us from a state of barbarism to a state of pre-eminence as a nation, then all that tends to the more general diffusion and increase of knowledge, must tend to augment our powers, our comforts, and our happiness.

19th. A more efficient preparatory education, one that will introduce the child to the pleasures of knowledge, and then he will want no other excitement to pursue it in after life.

N. B. The library consists of upwards of 2000 vols. and is the best scientific collection of books in Yorkshire.

GEORGE THURNELL.

Leeds, June 19th, 1835.

Hull.

1st. June 1825.

2nd. One hundred.

3rd. Honorary members' subscription 10*s.* 6*d.* per annum.

Proprietary share 5*s.*, subscription 2*s.* per quarter.

Apprentices 1*s.* per quarter.

150*l.* first year.

4th. Number of members,

81 Honorary, 10*s.* 6*d.* per annum.

464 Proprietary, 7*s.* 6*d.* share, 2*s.* quar. subscription.

140 Apprentices, 1*s.* entering, 1*s.* quar. subscription.

685

1833	214*l.*
1834	298*l.*
1835	267*l.*

5th. Successful; having erected a building, which was opened June 1st, 1830, at a cost of 2000*l.*—800*l.* of which remains to be paid—remaining as a mortgage.

6th. There was a debt of 1100*l.* at its opening, which has been reduced 300*l.* since that period.

7th. From October to April one lecture a week from members, and occasionally a course from a professional lecturer.

8th. Lectures with experiments draw the greatest numbers.—Chemistry, drawing, writing, and arithmetic; the two former best attended.

9th. This question will apply to the drawing class,

where painters, engravers, &c. seek instruction in their respective arts.

10th. A young man, a mason, attended a class for modelling—knew nothing of sculpture before — has executed a fine statue of our first president and patron, which stands in the hall of the institute. The young man is now with Chantrey.

11th. No answer.

12th. No answer.

13th. None.

14th. Decidedly good.

15th. No answer.

16th. No answer.

17th. No answer.

18th. I think, fully compensated for all the trouble. I have had opportunity of judging, having been a member from the first movement made towards the formation of the society, as well as its secretary for eight years.

19th. No answer.

Library, 1700 volumes: 15,000 deliveries last year.

A small museum of curiosities.

Some of the unanswered queries are more applicable to places in which extensive manufactures are carried on, and combinations among workmen are more organised than in Hull, and in which mechanics' classes are established expressly for the promotion of knowledge in their own departments. The Hull Institute is sought principally for the sake of general knowledge, and not for the study of their own arts, chiefly so far as easy access to books leads the mechanics to improve their professional knowledge by their individual efforts.

Lincoln.

1st. A mechanics' library, viz. for all persons of limited means, was established in Lincoln 1822, and contained about 60 members, when it was enlarged into its present shape 1833.

2nd. £1. subscribers and 8*s*. subscribers gave in their names; but some fell off, not having interested themselves in it, and some others when the novelty was over.

3rd. The annual income is from various sources, and mixed up with donations. The rules, first report, and abstract of accounts, are sent.

4th. The annuals at present are 94; the quarterlies 346.

5th. Certainly; but it is not expected that it shall fully maintain its first effect.

6th. Highly useful, and promises so to continue.

7th. Lectures have often been given, even weekly. The interest seems to depend rather on the lecturer, or public occasion, than on the subject.

8th. Algebra, arithmetic, architecture, botany, geometry, geography, French, Latin, elocution, writing. Arithmetic and writing best attended.

9th. There are very few real mechanics in Lincoln. The object, except in the architectural class, seems to have been more general: instruction,—in fact, adult schools.

10th. None but young men disposed to improvement would take the trouble to attend.

11th. I have not heard of any; and had there been, I must have heard, from my intercourse with the town.

12th. None others join it.

13th. Such characters, I should apprehend, never join a literary institution.

14th. Like our neighbours, a reading-room and books keep many from the pot-house; and never has occurred an instance of a person attending the institution intoxicated.

15th. Like our neighbours: but in this institution, they, their wives, and children have common sources of amusement, which tends to humanize, and consequently must induce stronger ties.

16th. This society does not meddle in any way with any one's politics, religion, or private life.

17th. Nothing of the kind ever occurred at Lincoln. The whole town would put it down at once.

18th. Amply. No doubt, by opening innocent and rational sources of amusement.

19th. The Lincoln rules contain many improvements and have worked well; more particularly having a female librarian, which has given a new feature to such institution, by giving a security and confidence to the female part of the subscribers, and inducing them to attend the lectures. We have also introduced conversational meetings, which have been most numerously attended, and the most regular conduct was observed.

Manchester.

1st. Established April 1824; opened Feb. 1825.

2nd. About 500.

3rd. £10. 10*s.* at one time, or 21*s.* per annum, constituted an honorary member, who was not allowed to enjoy all the advantages of the institution.—20*s.* per

annum constituted an ordinary member, who might enjoy all the privileges of the institution.

4th. December 1825 . 1232 members.

May 20th, 1835 about 1200 members.—Vide Report 1835, page 14.

5th. Vide Rules 1st and 2nd. Vide Report 1835.

6th. The institution languished several years after its establishment, the number of members averaging between 300 and 400: in 1830, 391 members; in 1831, 451 members; in 1832, 509 members; and since gradually increased to its present number, 1200.

7th. The Report, February 1835, states—"On no former occasion have we assembled under circumstances so gratifying and encouraging as the present."

8th. Twice in each week. Natural philosophy and chemistry excite the greatest interest, but much depends upon the fame and talent of the lecturer.

9th. Vide "Sketch of the Objects," &c. Report 1835, page 31.

10th. Yes.

11th. Many instances are known of such cases.—Vide Reports 1834 and 1835, page 14.

12th. Never heard of any.

13th. That is their general character.—Vide Report 1835, p. 14.

14th. Never heard of any. The reading-room of the institution is not always under the eye of any officer of the institution, and only one instance has occurred of any of the numerous books or periodicals having been missed.

15th. Generally known as being temperate and sober.

16th. Vide Report 1835, page 15.

17th. Yes.

18th. Never heard of any.

19th. Certainly.

20th. I have no improvements to suggest with respect to the Manchester Mechanics' Institution; but, with respect to others, I would suggest that the advice of our president be acted upon. In his address in the year 1832 he observed, "We want more of the union of pleasure and relaxation with improvement." This advice has been acted upon (vide the Reports 1834 and 1835), and we have now more of the union of social intercourse with intellectual improvement.

JOHN STANFIELD.

Isaac Newton, cotton-spinner, who has answered one set of the questions, is the same person mentioned in Report 1834, pages 11, 12, and from that circumstance obtained a situation of greater value and trust in the spinning-mill of Mr. Houldsworth.

J. S.

No. IV.—MECHANICS' INSTITUTIONS.

REPLIES OF MEMBERS.

London.

1st. A desire to obtain scientific and literary knowledge, and to meet with such as were in pursuit of the same objects. I have continued a member of the London Mechanics' Institution nearly twelve years.

2nd. I had studied the construction of my own language, was acquainted with arithmetic, and par-

tially understood the elements of geometry and algebra.

3rd. The time I have devoted to the institute is not more than is usually misspent by the mechanic in indolence and gossip, or in unnecessary sleep; and as to the expense, it is scarcely sixpence per week, for which I have been introduced to a considerable acquaintance with natural and experimental philosophy, ethics, political economy, metaphysics, and the French and Latin languages, &c. These I have pursued with due regard to practical utility, believing that all systematical knowledge is either directly or indirectly availing in the pursuits of active life.

4th. None whatever, but quite the contrary. I have always adopted it as a principle of the first importance never to suffer intellectual pursuits to interfere with secular duties.

5th. My business, which in its connexion is of the highest respectability, was obtained purely through my being a member of the London Mechanics' Institute; and as I was a perfect stranger in London, and was entirely destitute of capital, I can conceive of no other way in which I could have acquired such a business.

6th. As my habits were always of a moral description, I cannot say how it would have been with me in the respects named in this question had I not been associated with intellectual men. However, it is obviously the direct tendency of mechanics' institutions to promote good morals in society: for surely the man who is ardently pursuing knowledge will have neither time nor disposition for extravagance and intemperance. Moreover, knowledge always imparts a feeling

of respectability, which naturally produces that care and economy which are so essential to the prosperity and happiness of the working man.

7th. This is a question not susceptible of any very easy answer. Could I, indeed, reduce the pleasure this connexion has afforded me to linear or superficial admeasurement, I might, perhaps, find for it some solution; but even then it would present a task of considerable labour,—so great, so real, so pure and perpetual has been the pleasure I have derived from my connexion with the London Mechanics' Institution.

8th. This question has been mainly answered in the one preceding; I may merely add, therefore, that I conscientiously believe I have been far happier in connexion with the institution than I should have been apart from it; and it would be exceedingly easy to show that such as have taken an interest in me, and have been connected with me, have largely shared that happiness.

9th. Out of the multitude of reasons that may be assigned for so many withholding from joining mechanics' institutes, I shall take the liberty of noticing the following, which I am enabled to do from my personal acquaintance with many individuals of the several classes hereafter named.

I. In consequence of such institutions not being sufficiently advertised, there are many who are entirely unacquainted with the fact of their existence; and many others, who, though they have some knowledge of such establishments, have yet no adequate conception of their nature and utility.

II. There are others to whom the nature and ad-

vantages of mechanics' institutes have been explained, who notwithstanding are of opinion that the subjects there to be learned are of no use in practical life, and are therefore unworthy of their attention; which is an error founded, I conceive, on the false notion, that theoretical knowledge is not serviceable to the operative mechanic.

III. There is in this country an immense number of operatives that may be deemed somewhat intellectual, who are actuated by an opinion of the comparative merits of the proceedings of mechanics' institutions, which in my view is most seriously erroneous. The class I allude to are politicians. They conceive all their disadvantages and grievances to result from political causes, and refer whatever they consider wrong to the misgovernment of the country; and they accordingly think that political knowledge and political exertions are of the greatest possible importance, while science and literature are comparatively trifling and worthless.

IV. There is another class of society who withhold from and object to mechanics' institutions on the ground of, what appears to me to be, religious prejudice. They allege that they are establishments detrimental to the prosperity of religion; that their tendency is to puff up with pride of human knowledge, to lead the soul from God, and often to involve the mind in the whirlpool of infidelity.

V. There is a great number of individuals whom poverty prevents from participating in the benefits of mechanics' institutions; some who would gladly do so, but cannot spare even the sixpence per week; and many others who might perhaps afford that small

sum, but are still hindered by greater barriers than this,—such as their destitution of clothes wherein to appear decent and respectable, and their want of liberty from their employment.

VI. There is another very large class of society whose avocations in life preclude the possibility of their joining such institutes; as shopmen, bakers, brewers, &c.

VII. Others there are whose taste leads them to institutions of a more exciting and amusing character, such as the theatre, the free-and-easy, the ball-room, and the concert; a taste which, in my opinion, completely incapacitates them for the quiet and sober studies that ought to be pursued in a mechanics' institution.

All these classes I have contemplated as morally fit to be members of institutions of the nature in question; but there are others, in vast numbers, whose immorality may be justly considered as the reason why they are not found seeking useful knowledge.

10th. I am not aware that anything could be done in regard to the general character of the institution to which I belong that would render it more attractive. Its internal operations could be made more efficient by an accession of room for the accommodation of a larger number of classes.

THOMAS HOLMES.

Derby.

1st. To partake more largely of the pleasure and advantages derivable from intellectual pursuits. I have been a member of the Derby Mechanics' Institution for a period of four years.

2nd. It was unsatisfactory; having only received originally an ordinary village school education: but I had acquired from subsequent solitary study a keen perception of the enjoyment afforded by an enlarged acquaintance with literary productions.

3rd. Yes: not, indeed, in an immediate pecuniary point of view, but in the extension of the field for friendly intercourse, by which valuable experience is gained, the mental powers quickened, and the social affections expanded; and the expense being trivial, I consider these advantages an ample compensation, independently of the positive literary and scientific knowledge afforded by the library, the classes, and the lectures of the institution.

4th. Quite the contrary, as is already shown.

5th. Most certainly it is: for knowledge having universal relations, that which I have acquired through the institution necessarily communicates greater accuracy and facility in the exercise of my daily avocations.

6th. The proper direction of the intellect has, I have observed, in most cases a favourable effect upon moral conduct; and I do not doubt but that this institution, by supplying mental gratifications, has occasionally prevented an indulgence in the grosser propensities.

7th. The positive pleasure induced by a connexion with the institution, both in an immediate and a remote point of view, is very considerable, and is, of course, in proportion to the strength of the desire for information.

8th. The institution certainly affords opportunities for the exercise of those feelings upon which happiness greatly depends, and both my intellectual and

social enjoyments have undoubtedly been augmented by it.

9th. The principal reasons seem to be—

I. Frequently a wholly neglected education, or the being placed early in life in circumstances unfavourable to moral and intellectual welfare.

II. Early trainings, falsely called education, which either misdirect or fail to develope the faculties.

III. Other false teachings, or prejudices arising therefrom, which respectively render individuals incapable of perceiving with an intensity sufficiently strong to influence the will, the advantages of intellectual enjoyments.

IV. An indisposition for reading, &c. induced by too much compulsive bodily exertion during the day, or by the great number of hours employed in labour.

10. I think they would become more attractive and generally useful if the external obstructions above enumerated could be diminished, and if the regular attendance of an able teacher, or the periodical visitation of a lecturer, could be had. The interchange of these teachers from time to time would add novelty and attraction; and their ability to advise the members, collectively and individually, as to the best mode of managing the institution, as to the selection of books, the systematic prosecution of their studies, and the practical application of general principles to the ordinary affairs of life, would essentially add to the extent of their usefulness. By this means a directing mind (so much needed in these institutions) would be secured, the energies and the better feelings of the members awakened, their manners improved, and

consequently their interest in the progress of the institution greatly augmented.

AMBROSE CLARKE.

Derby, 13th May 1835.

Manchester.

1st. To acquire knowledge which I had not the means of obtaining without joining the institute. About seven years.

2nd. I could read, write, and knew a little of arithmetic.

3rd. Yes: I am convinced, that if those who subscribe to the institution were not connected with it, at least the greater portion of them would pass their time in a more useless manner, and expend more money than their subscription amounts to.

4th. None whatever.

5th. I have been more successful in my trade, and have obtained a better situation than I should have done had I never joined the institute; and I know others who have been equally successful.

6th. Yes.

7th. I do not see how a precise answer can be given to this, but I believe that it has been productive of great pleasure.

8th. I have stated that I have been more prosperous in life than I should have been had I not connected myself with the institute, and of course those depending on me have shared in that prosperity.

9th. Prejudice, and misrepresentation of the motives of those who originated mechanics' institutions.

10th. I know nothing that can add to the attrac-

tions of our institute. I can only pray that a still wider dissemination of knowledge may open the eyes of those for whom this institution was mainly established to the many advantages which it offers them.

J. NEWTON.

1st. To acquire a knowledge of several subjects which I had previously not had the means or opportunity of acquiring. Since its first establishment in 1824.

2nd. Very limited.

3rd. I conceive that I have derived much practical benefit from my connexion with the institution. Yes.

4th. None.

5th. I think it is probable, that if I had not attended the institution, I should not have been led to enter upon the various studies which I have pursued, and from which I have derived considerable mental knowledge.

6th. Yes.

7th. I conceive I am raised in the estimation of my friends.

8th. Previous to joining the institution, I passed my leisure hours in indolence or fruitless pursuits; but having been engaged for several years in the management of the institution, endeavouring to promote its success, my time has been spent more happily than I think it otherwise would have been had I not subscribed to the institution. I conceive it has also promoted the happiness of those persons connected with me.

9th. Prejudice.

10th. My answer would be the same as the last question in the series relating to the Manchester Mechanics' Institution.

JOHN STANFIELD, *Bookkeeper, Manchester.*

Hull.

1st. To obtain information by means of the library, lectures, &c. Ever since the formation, June 1825.

2nd. Very defective; but I had had the advantage of a common day-school education, yet was uninformed in those matters which form the every-day concerns of life.

3rd. Yes, certainly.

4th. Not to my knowledge.

5th. I think I have.

6th. Yes.

7th. Very considerable.

8th. I presume the affirmative will follow from the previous answer.

9th. The causes are various: wages being low for men with large families, the expense is a great object to many; others have not yet taken a proper view of the advantages to result to themselves.

10th. I am not aware of the facilities which other institutes afford for the obtaining of knowledge: in ours at Hull, all political works are carefully excluded; the thirst for that species of information among the working classes is great, and there is no provision for it. I am not advocating the immediate alteration of our rule, because I am aware with us it is attended with difficulties; party feeling is very high here; but where it could be done with safety, I think it would have a good effect. Experimental lectures are of all

things the best with us; but they are generally so expensive.

Hull.

1st. To assist in the support of what I considered a useful institution. I have been a member between nine and ten years.

2nd. Reading, writing, and arithmetic.

3rd. I have: indeed I don't know how any person can attend without.

4th. None.

5th. I have been no loser.

6th. Certainly.

7th. I don't know how any person can attend such lectures as are delivered at mechanics' institutes without deriving both pleasure and instruction.

8th. I do.

TIMOTHY JOHNSON, *Block-maker.*

Lincoln.

1st. The object was to have access to books, to the reading-room, and other sources of instruction and pleasure; also to do a general good to the community.

2nd. I could read, write, and cast accounts, but had no inducement for further inquiries.

3rd. No doubt. First, the expense is small; the sources of information are miscellaneous, and I find a pleasure in mixing with others in a like pursuit.

4th. Certainly not any; on the contrary, the lectures and classes are arranged for the evenings after business hours. I am well employed.

5th. I cannot say that I have; indeed, the benefit is much exaggerated in the question.

6th. No doubt many are kept from more engage-

ments both from the value of example and the inculcation of correct precepts.

7th. The rational gratification has on the whole been considerable.

8th. The general effect either upon myself or any other member is rather too broadly expressed; the tendency is such, no doubt.

9th. Because generally a taste for intellectual pleasures, which is not exciting, does not exist.

10th. Experience alone can settle this. The Lincoln can so far suggest little to alter in its plan.

Leeds.

1st. An unquenchable thirst for knowledge. Since the commencement of the London Mechanics' Institution.

2nd. I received my education at a country free grammar-school, in which, while I was at it, grammar was never taught—and, I may say, nothing else. Proof from the plan pursued by the first class, in which I was for about a year and a half. 1st. School assembled at seven A.M.; prayers and repeating daily task, (consisting of ten or twenty words committed to memory from a spelling-book,) until eight; reading in the Bible until nine. 2nd. School assembled at ten; writing until eleven; arithmetic until twelve. 3rd. School assembled at two; the boys supposed to be looking at their Bibles, while their three masters were conversing on gossip, together with the news and politics of that all-exciting period of the war, 1812 and 1813. Thus merrily passed the time until three. Reading in the Bible until four; writing until three-quarters past; then prayers, and dismissed at five. This was the daily monotonous round, varied only to suit the season

of the year as regarded daylight. By this uninviting process the subjects for our studies were presented to us lifeless and uninteresting; and if excitement was added, it was other than intellectual. I was thus trained from Midsummer 1808 to Midsummer 1813. Under this system I obtained an ability to read badly, spell worse, write a miserable hand, and got to the end of practice in Walkinghame's Tutor without understanding one rule that I had passed. I left the country for London in March 1814, and was bound an apprentice to a jeweller, an illiterate man, whose only aim was getting money. While out on his business in 1820 or 1821, and during the repairs of St. Paul's Cathedral, I passed through the churchyard, and was struck with the apparent danger of the workmen when replacing the cross. It was this circumstance that excited my mind and turned it to scientific pursuits. You will say, how? I wanted to know the height of the workmen. I thought I could make an instrument that would enable me to ascertain it. I made such a one. I then showed it to a friend, who told me it was a quadrant; took me to a mathematical instrument maker's, and explained the use of one to me. But before making my instrument I drew a plan of it; examined the figure, and was struck with the curious properties of the lines, being then ignorant even of the meaning of geometry. I afterwards, while examining some old books at a stall, opened one in which the lines of the diagrams were those that I wanted to become acquainted with: it was in fact Bonnycastle's Geometry. My limited knowledge of arithmetic prevented me at that time from deriving the benefit from it which it has since conferred. The Mechanics' Magazine in 1823

made its appearance: this introduced me to a new world, and one congenial to my mind (which is of a mechanical turn). I responded to its call for the formation of a scientific society, and was one of the first members of the London Mechanics' Institution.

The first course of lectures in that institution on mechanical philosophy, by Professor Millington, were to me a series of intellectual feasts, and when, at their close, he related that he had set out an artisan and had raised himself to what he was, I devoured up his discourse, and determined from thenceforward to seek Wisdom until I found her, that I also might claim her rewards—riches and honour.

After the above, followed in rapid succession courses of lectures on the whole range of natural philosophy: my intellectual life by these was excited, supported, and enlarged. A circumstance in Dr. Birkbeck's hydraulics may be worthy of notice, as it gave a decided direction to one of my pursuits. The Doctor, after describing an hydraulic engine used in Hungary, suggested to the members, it might be made a useful lesson to exercise their invention, and apply the knowledge they had acquired, if they would try to render the engine self-acting. I made the attempt, and thought I could do it; but, not being favourably circumstanced to construct a model, I made a plan of my idea, which I showed to the Doctor. It was so badly executed that he could not perfectly comprehend it. He said I wanted a knowledge of mechanical drawing and perspective. I felt the truth of the remark, and applied myself to practise the art. The pursuit afforded me pleasure. I have succeeded; and it is now rewarding me with profit. Such was my

eagerness for knowledge, that when an assistant to the lecturers of the institution was wanted, one who could clean and keep in repair the apparatus, I offered myself at about half the wages I was receiving, esteeming the opportunity it would afford an equivalent to the sacrifice made.

I did not succeed in the application; but it introduced me to the notice of some scientific friends, who would have been of great assistance to me but for an early after-removal from London. I joined the arithemetical class, and was making rapid progress, at the time Mr. Black offered to give a course of lessons on the French language. I became one of his pupils: he introduced me to the secretary of the London Infants' School Society, who proposed to me to take the charge of an infants' school at Stockport in Cheshire. This offer was accepted. I left London April 1825, to enter upon my new charge, among a strange people. I lamented the loss of the Mechanics' Institution, and the friends with whom it had so recently made me acquainted. I exerted myself to get an institution at Stockport. I had with me a letter of introduction from Dr. Birkbeck to Dr. Henry of Manchester on the subject,—that if one could be formed, soliciting the latter to render it some assistance. One was established: I was appointed librarian. But the panic of 1826 caused the infants' school at Stockport to be abandoned. I left to open one at Leeds, which I conducted for seven years, so much to the satisfaction of the committee, that they recommended me in 1833 to superintend the Royal Lancasterian Free School of five hundred boys, which situation I now hold, and I am drawing-master to the Mechanics' In-

stitution. As such, all that I know, and every qualification I possess for the discharge of my important public duties, are to be attributed to my having joined a mechanics' institution.

The above brief sketch of my life is my answer to the first eight questions.

9th. Ignorance and prejudice,—ignorance arising from a want of sufficient education previously to learning their trade for them to value knowledge: the little they possess not enabling them to apply it, they feel no interest to acquire more; as such youths generally fall into the habits of their ignorant and vicious fellow-workmen. Prejudice;—many of the skilful and head-workmen supposing that they are invited to join a mechanics' institution for the purpose of imparting their knowledge to others, or that their masters, as they express it, may be able to pick their brains as they do their bones; others, that machinery and chemistry have injured them too much already for them to try to invent the one or to discover the secrets of the other; some, that it is a tub thrown out by the Government to amuse them, and to draw their attention from off (the all-important subject to them at least) of politics.

10th. A more general, liberal, and comprehensive system of NATIONAL EDUCATION.

GEORGE THURNELL,
Master of the Royal Lancasterian Free-School, Leeds.

June 6th, 1835.

1st. My motive for joining the Mechanics' Institute was to acquire knowledge and general information. I have been a member six or seven years.

2nd. My education was but very indifferent, knowing nothing of mathematics, and little of other branches of knowledge.

3rd. I believe I have derived practical benefit from my connexion with the institution, and such mental knowledge as will highly compensate me for the time bestowed and expense incurred.

4th. I am not aware that I have suffered either the least disadvantage or experienced the smallest impediment in my ordinary avocations in consequence of my connexion with the institute.

5th. I have no doubt but that I have been more successful in my trade than I should have been had I not joined the Mechanics' Institution.

6th. I believe that that connexion, by affording me agreeable and profitable employment, has withheld me both from temptations to extravagance and intemperance.

7th. That my connexion with the institution has been the means of affording me much positive pleasure. I believe; but to what extent, I think it is not easy to define.

8th. The first part of this question is answered in the previous one, by acknowledging that I have gained much positive pleasure: and in answer to the second part, I have no doubt but the happiness of those connected with me has been promoted by my joining the Mechanics' Institution.

9th. With respect to mechanics' institutes gene-

rally, I cannot speak, as I know but little about any excepting the Leeds one, with which I have been connected, and with respect to that, in my opinion there are two grand reasons why more have not joined it: firstly, a too circumscribed library, being too scientific and philosophical for the general reader; and secondly, a want of good rooms for reading, the classes, and lectures.

10th. The only way, in my opinion, to make mechanics' institutes more attractive and useful, is, firstly, to found them upon as liberal a footing as possible, so as to give every member an interest in promoting their welfare, by allowing them to elect or be elected to offices in the institutes: secondly, by having a library not so much confined to scientific and philosophical works, but to contain, in addition, elementary works, and works of interest, suited to the general reader; and I also think that a few of the best reviews, magazines, and provincial and London newspapers, would be a great means of inducing a great many to join them. And thirdly, there should be a good commodious reading and lecture room, with convenient rooms for the classes. JAMES MOORHOUSE.

1st. A desire to become better informed, and to obtain facilities for studying on subjects which I believed would be beneficial to me, and which I had no other opportunity of doing than by joining the Mechanics' Institute. I have been nine years a member.

2nd. I had obtained an ordinary day-school education, as a knowledge of the simple rules of arithmetic, but was completely ignorant of the most simple

parts of philosophy. I knew that steam caused the steam-engine to work, but I did not know how or why; I knew that the pump caused water to rise out of a well, but I also believed that it was through the agency of suction, and I thought its power was unlimited as to extent.

3rd. Yes: if knowing how to account for the otherwise hid operations occurring in my business, and of course knowing them, I am often able to profit where I otherwise should not be. The knowledge I have obtained I consider has more than recompensed me for the time and expense I have been put to; and I consider myself bound on that account to give my support to mechanics' institutions as long as I am able, in order that I may discharge the debt I owe to society.

4th. A little: from the prevalent opinion that machinery is detrimental to the interests of the working classes, some have withheld their support, I know, from me in my trade as an innkeeper, under the idea that, as I am a member of a mechanics' institution, I must be favourable to the introduction of machinery, and consequently, according to their mistaken notion, an enemy to them. But that is an opinion which is fast wearing away.

5th. Yes; I believe I have generally, inasmuch as I have been enabled to take advantage (from what scientific knowledge I possess) of circumstances that I otherwise should not have been, and consequently to enhance the profits of my trade; though that of a publican is not one which calls for or allows much display of scientific knowledge.

6th. Yes; I have reason to think it has. I have

always found more pleasure when my mind has been engaged in scientific pursuits (which my connexion with the Mechanics' Institution led me to), than either in the company of bacchanalians, or the contemplation of any advantage to be obtained by unnecessary or showy apparel or furniture.

7th. To an almost unlimited extent: for I always find it a pleasure in witnessing any operation of Nature or Art, so that if I do not *know* how it is brought about, yet I know so much of the principles of philosophy as generally enables me to come to a pretty correct conclusion.

8th. Yes; both myself and those connected with me have been: myself, because I have been taught that though a man may be obliged to fill a humble station in society, yet that he still possesses the power of attaining all the real blessings of life; and to those around me, inasmuch as they are enabled to obtain explanations, sometimes of subjects that they would otherwise remain ignorant of, and consequently through my connexion they are benefited.

9th. There are several reasons which may be assigned with great truth. 1st. A very great many who from their station in society ought to be among the patrons of mechanics' institutions, are jealous of the labouring classes getting more information than they like to be at the trouble of obtaining, and consequently making them look rather awkward. Others again, who might benefit by it, fancy that it is established merely for teaching men how to invent machinery; and those, amongst the mechanics especially, who do already possess some knowledge, think that they possess as much as is necessary for them,

and that they are wished to join merely for the purpose of communicating what they already know to others who are not so well informed: but by far the greater portion are those who have not yet been taught to think at all, and therefore cannot be expected to join either for one reason or another.

10th. I believe that if we had more frequently lectures, we should be much more prosperous. There is, perhaps, no more rapid or pleasing way for a man who has been jaded with working a hard day's work to obtain information than by this mode; and, again, if you can once induce a man to attend a pleasing scientific lecture, he directly feels a desire to know something more of what he has seen, as well as a desire to appear to deserve more the character of a man, which he feels he does not do if he remains in ignorance of what those around him already know. Next to that is the library, which will always be one of the most valuable advantages to be gained by joining the mechanics' institution, and which on that account ought to be made as attractive, in a scientific sense, and kept open as much as possible, which is not the case at present in Leeds. Wherever, when classes can be advantageously encouraged, they ought to be: but I think that the funds of an institution ought not to be touched for their support till they become more than sufficient for the provision of lectures and library.

JAMES KITSON.

1st. My motive in joining the institute was the use of the library, and to derive such knowledge from the classes and lectures as I had not been

enabled to do at a mercantile school. I have been a member three years.

2nd. I had had a good commercial education prior to my becoming a member.

3rd. I have derived great practical benefit and mental knowledge from my connexion with the institute, which have already fully compensated for the time and expense incurred.

4th. I have not suffered any disadvantage from my connexion with the institute; but I have derived such knowledge from it as I find to be of great use to me in my employment.

5th. I attribute the commencement and success of my present trade entirely to having been a member of the chemical class of the institution.

6th. By employing my leisure time, I should consider it as removing such temptation more out of my way.

7th & 8th. I consider my fifth answer as sufficient for these.

9th. A great belief prevails amongst the working classes that the mechanics' institutions were invented by masters wishing to derive practical knowledge from the men to apply to their own use; and this I find to be the reason why a many will not join these institutions.

10th. As I know nothing of any institution but this of which I am a member, I do not feel able to give an answer to this question.

WILLIAM MARRIOTT.

1st. My motive in joining the Mechanics' Institute was to gain useful practical knowledge, which I

thought would be of service to me in my business in after life. It is now seven years since I became a member.

2nd. My answer is, I could only write very indifferently, and was unacquainted with arithmetic.

3rd. My answer is, I have found my expectations fully realized which induced me to join the institution in my first answer.

4th. My answer is in the negative.

5th. My answer is, I have found the knowledge which I derived at the Mechanics' Institute to be of the greatest service to me, and that it has been the means of procuring me abundance of employment when I might have had none.

6th. My answer is, yes.

7th. My answer is, it has been the means of showing me the value of knowledge, which has led me to cultivate my mind, which must ever be a source of permanent pleasure to me.

8th. My answer is in the affirmative.

9th. My answer is, some from ignorant pride, but, I fear, a great many from their love of extravagance and intemperance.

10th. I should think frequent lectures on the arts and sciences would be a means of promoting its welwelfare; also the officers of the institution paying strict attention to their duties.

NICHOLAS TILNEY.

1st. My motive for entering the Mechanics' Institution was to improve myself generally, instead of spending the few hours I had to spare in a useless manner. I have been a member about six years.

2nd. My education at the time I became a member was but trifling, as I had only learned a few of the first rules in arithmetic, and that very imperfectly.

3rd. I have derived knowledge from that institution which I find very beneficial in my profession (though it does not require any mechanical knowledge); therefore I cannot regret the expense, as it is but trifling: and as to the time bestowed, I have great reasons to be thankful, as it is very probable I might have spent it more to my own disadvantage.

4th. To this question, my reply is decidedly in the negative.

5th. It is my belief, that if I had not become a member of the Mechanics' Institution, I should not have been at all qualified to fulfil the situation I hold at present; therefore, I must say I have been more successful, and find it very much to my own benefit.

6th. I think that if I had not connected myself with that institution and spent my time to advantage, I might have got into company, which would have led me to extravagance, intemperance, and a more dissipated life.

7th. The pleasure I have derived is great (of course I call it pleasure), as it has been the means of improving my mind, and of obtaining a situation I should not have had, had I not greatly improved myself in that institution.

8th. My answer is, yes.

9th. In my opinion one great objection is, that a number of boys from ten to fifteen years of age are members of the institution, and some of them much better scholars than those of twenty or upwards: they appear to show a very great reluctance in mingling with

those boys (from mere pride); the reason is, they do not wish to show their ignorance.

10th. In Leeds the Mechanics' Institution has been very much neglected by the officers of the institution; and my real belief is, that if they had shown a more lively interest in its affairs, it would have been flourishing at this present time, instead of falling to the ground stone by stone as it has done.

One great objection is respecting the library, which is only open to take out books four hours in the week. It should be upon the same footing as the Literary Institution, which is open all day long.

WM. WATERHOUSE.

May 18*th*, 1835.

1st. My motive for entering the Mechanics' Institute was, at the first, to become perfect in drawing, arithmetic, and chemistry, and because of the excellent library we had access to. I have been a subscriber to it three years.

2nd. I had an education suitable for a tradesman.

3rd. I have received great practical knowledge from the institute, which is likely fully to compensate for the time bestowed and expense incurred.

4th. I have suffered no disadvantage from my connexion with the institute, but received great pleasure and beneficial interest from it.

5th. I believe I have been more successful in my trade than I otherwise should have been, had I not been connected with the institute.

6th. I do think that the connexion with the institute has withheld me from spending my leisure hours in extravagance and less advantageously.

7th & 8th. I do sincerely believe that I have been a happier man by joining the institute, besides affording great pleasure to those with whom I am connected.

9th & 10th. I do not know how institutions in general are carried on; but my opinion is, if the committee of the Leeds Mechanics' Institute were allowed to consist of subscribers as well as members, together with an active secretary, all beneficially interested in it, we should find it in a flourishing condition. But as long as there is no person to look to the carrying on of the classes with spirit, nor interested in the welfare of it, this institution will never prosper.

W. Huggon.

1st. In the year 1822 I was accidentally appointed doorkeeper to the lecture-room of the Leeds Philosophical and Literary Society. On hearing a course of lectures on natural philosophy by a Mr. Nichol of Edinburgh, I was, as it were thunderstruck; it was a new world to me—hence arose the motive for joining the institute as soon as it was established in 1824. I continued a member until 1833.

2nd. I could read and write a tolerable hand, but knew nothing of natural philosophy, chemistry, perspective, or mechanical drawing.

3rd. I became so proficient in architectural and mechanical drawing, that I was appointed teacher of that class in the institute, with a fair remunerating salary, and leader of the chemical class, and illustrated the lessons one night each week with experiments.

4th. None whatever, but quite the reverse.

5th. I was a stuff-presser; and in 1833 I commenced business with some partners in the dyeing and finishing of stuff goods, (and find my chemical knowledge of continual service,) and am at present manager in the concern, for which situation I should not have been qualified but for the Mechanics' Institute.

6th. Undoubtedly, and that very seriously, as my previous companions were that way inclined.

7th. To a great extent, by introducing me to acquaintance whose friendship gives me greater pleasure than I could possibly have enjoyed by any other means.

8th. Not a shadow of doubt on the subject; and has given me the ability of teaching my children, what will be to their welfare, and consequently to their advantage and happiness.

N.B. My family consists of five boys and one girl, all under ten years of age.

9th. The education there given is too much confined to scientific subjects; and secondly, prejudice on the part of mechanics, who think, that by making clever men more common, their remuneration will be reduced, or, in other words, their wages will be lowered.

10th. By changing the name to something like "Useful Knowledge Society," or "Society for the Improvement of Working Men," &c. and introducing lessons on political economy and other useful information, besides that which is more intimately connected with the arts and sciences; and by beginning this system at an earlier age in schools established at the expense of the country out of taxation, of which the labouring class pay their fair proportion.

JOHN BREWERTON.

Woodhouse Carr, near Leeds.

N°. V. *Queries relating to the School connected with the Factory belonging to the Messrs. Strutt, at Belper, Derbyshire.*

1st. In what degree are the general results of the school satisfactory, taking into consideration the trouble, expense, &c.?—The results are satisfactory, and the expense to the parents much less than if they had sent their children to common day schools: of course, the large school-rooms, with the expenses attendant upon them, and the surplus beyond the penny per week which is required to pay the masters and mistresses amounts annually to a considerable sum.

2nd. When was the school first opened?—In the spring of 1818.

3rd. Has the general course, from the time it was first opened, been to extend the school, or to reduce it?—To extend it.

4th. What was the average number of children during the first few years? and what were they taught?—Nearly 300. Reading, writing, and arithmetic; and the girls also knitting, sewing, and various needleworks.

5th. What proportion did the number of these children bear to the total number of children connected with the factory, either immediately or through their parents?—From three-fourths to seven-eighths.

6th. What is the present average number of children in the factory schools? what are they taught? and what proportion does their number bear to the total number of children connected with the factory?—About 450. As before. About the same proportion as before.

7th. How many years do the children usually remain in the school, counting the time they are in the infant school, and including also the period when they are engaged during the greater portion of the day in the factory?—This is so various that it is impossible to give an average: some from two years old to nine or ten; and if they are then taken into the factory they must continue for two hours a day two or three years longer at school.

8th. At what age do the children generally enter the school, and at what age do they leave it?—They enter and leave from two years to ten or twelve: no definite answer can be given to this query.

9th. To what extent and by what means are the formation of good habits, the cultivation of the reasoning powers, and the developement of the kind and social feelings, attended to?—The masters and mistresses of the schools use their endeavours to produce all the good effects mentioned in this query; but though the result is tolerably satisfactory, it is impossible to state the extent to which they are carried; it must be mere matter of opinion.

10th. What provision is there for healthful recreations and amusements? — Well-ventilated and airy school-rooms, with play-grounds attached, and the usual games of infant schools.

11th. Does corporal punishment exist in the school? and if so, to what extent?—To a very small extent, and that only amongst the rudest and worst behaved boys.

12th. Are the children docile and affectionate? and are they apparently happy?—Yes; as much as at most other schools.

13th. How do the children turn out in after life? how particularly as regards honesty, industry, sobriety, observance of the laws (particularly as regards destruction of machinery, combining in attempts to force up wages by a system of intimidation)?—Upon the whole, well — very well. All well. A very strong feeling against the destruction of machinery, and we know nothing of combinations; they mostly understand that their masters' interest is their own.

14th. Have any instances come to your knowledge, and if so how many, of a child brought up in your school afterwards committing a criminal offence? or of his becoming a pauper?—There may be individual instances, but none occur to us. No doubt, from sickness, or a very large family: the instances are very few.

15th. To what extent do the children remain connected with the factory in after life? and what is the average length of their stay?—A great many during their lives: some, of course, remove; but the emigration to other places compared with the population is but small. It is impossible to say.

16th. Do your records enable you to say what is the average length of life among the persons brought up in your factory? and if so, what is that average?—No. They enjoy full as good health as any persons employed in any other way, whether agricultural or manufacturing, and appear to live as long; but we cannot state any average.

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N°. V. *Queries relating to the School connected with the Factory belonging to the Messrs. Strutt, at Belper, Derbyshire.*

1st. In what degree are the general results of the school satisfactory, taking into consideration the trouble, expense, &c.?—The results are satisfactory, and the expense to the parents much less than if they had sent their children to common day schools: of course, the large school-rooms, with the expenses attendant upon them, and the surplus beyond the penny per week which is required to pay the masters and mistresses amounts annually to a considerable sum.

2nd. When was the school first opened?—In the spring of 1818.

3rd. Has the general course, from the time it was first opened, been to extend the school, or to reduce it?—To extend it.

4th. What was the average number of children during the first few years? and what were they taught?—Nearly 300. Reading, writing, and arithmetic; and the girls also knitting, sewing, and various needleworks.

5th. What proportion did the number of these children bear to the total number of children connected with the factory, either immediately or through their parents?—From three-fourths to seven-eighths.

6th. What is the present average number of children in the factory schools? what are they taught? and what proportion does their number bear to the total number of children connected with the factory?—About 450. As before. About the same proportion as before.

7th. How many years do the children usually remain in the school, counting the time they are in the infant school, and including also the period when they are engaged during the greater portion of the day in the factory?—This is so various that it is impossible to give an average: some from two years old to nine or ten; and if they are then taken into the factory they must continue for two hours a day two or three years longer at school.

8th. At what age do the children generally enter the school, and at what age do they leave it?—They enter and leave from two years to ten or twelve: no definite answer can be given to this query.

9th. To what extent and by what means are the formation of good habits, the cultivation of the reasoning powers, and the developement of the kind and social feelings, attended to?—The masters and mistresses of the schools use their endeavours to produce all the good effects mentioned in this query; but though the result is tolerably satisfactory, it is impossible to state the extent to which they are carried; it must be mere matter of opinion.

10th. What provision is there for healthful recreations and amusements? —Well-ventilated and airy school-rooms, with play-grounds attached, and the usual games of infant schools.

11th. Does corporal punishment exist in the school? and if so, to what extent?—To a very small extent, and that only amongst the rudest and worst behaved boys.

12th. Are the children docile and affectionate? and are they apparently happy?—Yes; as much as at most other schools.

13th. How do the children turn out in after life? how particularly as regards honesty, industry, sobriety, observance of the laws (particularly as regards destruction of machinery, combining in attempts to force up wages by a system of intimidation)?—Upon the whole, well — very well. All well. A very strong feeling against the destruction of machinery, and we know nothing of combinations; they mostly understand that their masters' interest is their own.

14th. Have any instances come to your knowledge, and if so how many, of a child brought up in your school afterwards committing a criminal offence? or of his becoming a pauper?—There may be individual instances, but none occur to us. No doubt, from sickness, or a very large family: the instances are very few.

15th. To what extent do the children remain connected with the factory in after life? and what is the average length of their stay?—A great many during their lives: some, of course, remove; but the emigration to other places compared with the population is but small. It is impossible to say.

16th. Do your records enable you to say what is the average length of life among the persons brought up in your factory? and if so, what is that average?—No. They enjoy full as good health as any persons employed in any other way, whether agricultural or manufacturing, and appear to live as long; but we cannot state any average.

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